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# **ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES BULLETIN**

**VOLUME XLIV**

**NUMBER 2**



**Were Sputnik's Scapegoats  
Superfluous?**

**Public Understanding and Support  
for Education**

**MAY 1958**

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## EDITORIAL NOTES

**A**SIAN STUDIES are a relatively new area of concern to American higher education both in point of time and in the number of colleges and universities that have given sustained attention to their development. In these circumstances institutions interested in strengthening their resources for dealing with this part of the world may encounter problems for which the experience accumulated by other institutions already carrying on programs in the Asian field will provide helpful insights. This accumulated experience is available through the Asia Society, an educational and cultural organization which has among its purposes the development of opportunities for Asian studies in American schools and colleges. The Society believes that the proper and ultimate aim of such development should be to ensure that no liberally educated American is unacquainted with the main traditions and contemporary life of the peoples of the non-Western world. The Society also believes that in pursuit of this aim the study of Asia must be made an integral part of the undergraduate curriculum in appropriate relation to the whole. The Society is therefore prepared, in response to requests from interested colleges and universities, to make arrangements—including if necessary the sharing of expenses—for the provision of consultants from the faculty or administration of institutions of comparable size and character that are already providing programs of Asian studies. Further information may be obtained from Ward Morehouse, Educational Director, Asia Society, 18 East 50th Street, New York, N. Y.

**A** PROMISING SOURCE OF TEACHING MANPOWER, which has been relatively little explored, is discussed in an article in this issue on the potential use of retired industrial personnel by colleges and universities. Member colleges that may be interested in investigating the possibility of making use of such opportunities should get into touch with the author, Dr. J. Whitney Bunting, General Electric Company, 570 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, New York.

**T**HE DANFORTH FOUNDATION announces that eighteen Danforth Campus Christian Workers and twelve Danforth

Seminary Interns have been chosen for grants in 1958-59. The grants under the former program were made on the basis of professional growth, intellectual promise, personality congenial to informal student-faculty relations and vitality of religious commitment, to candidates chosen from 34 applicants among college chaplains, denominational student workers, "Y" secretaries and so forth. The seminary interns for the third year of this particular program were chosen from 58 nominations made by deans of accredited seminaries. The awards for campus Christian workers allow for an academic year of graduate study in a university or seminary of the candidate's choosing, and those for seminary interns provide for a year of supervised training in college religious work at an assigned college or university. Stipends are graduated to allow for candidates' family responsibilities.

**UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN**, a constituent college of the National University of Ireland, invites applications for admission to a summer school, 8-22 July 1958, on "Ireland: the Past and the Present." The school will include lectures on Irish history, literature, economic conditions and contemporary life and will offer opportunities for excursions to museums, galleries, theatres and places of historic and literary interest or scenic beauty both in and outside Dublin. A limited number of men and women can be housed in student hostels. Full information may be obtained from the Secretary, Summer School, University College, Dublin, Ireland.

**A PLAN BELIEVED TO BE UNIQUE AMONG AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES** will be introduced by Bennington College, beginning with the academic year 1958-59, to relieve the increasing financial strain on students' families and at the same time to eliminate the "subsidy" paid by the faculty toward the cost of educating students. Under this plan the total charge for tuition, room, board and health services will be increased by \$400 a year so as to approximate to the actual cost. Students whose families are able to pay the full charge will be expected to do so, but for those less favorably situated the tuition fee will be graduated to correspond with the family's financial resources. Total charges will thus range from \$1050 for room, board and health services with no charge for tuition

to a maximum of \$2650, including the full tuition fee of \$1600. Commenting on the new arrangement, President Fels said: "We feel that this plan will relieve, though it will not remove, the financial problems of parents and colleges alike. In the past special provisions have been made for children of lower-income families. The new plan extends these provisions to middle-income families who are financially out of range for traditional scholarships but who are finding it increasingly difficult to meet the rising cost of college for their children. The Bennington Plan recognizes realistically the cost of instruction and the other basic services of a residential college—board, room and health. By charging this cost to those able to pay, the income of the College will be increased—as it must be. At the same time, no family will pay any part of the cost of the education of children from other families. It will be necessary for the College to increase the amount raised through gifts to close the gap between the cost of education and the amounts charged families not able to pay the cost. Thirty per cent of Bennington students are already on reduced tuition (scholarships) supported by gifts. It is the College's intention in the years ahead, if the new plan functions as we hope it will, to use the additional revenue for long-term increases in the salaries of our faculty." In connection with the introduction of the plan, the College is receiving from the Fund for the Advancement of Education a grant of \$25,000 designed primarily to broaden the search for ways of utilizing faculty and other college resources as productively as possible in an effort to support higher faculty salaries.

**THE BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON THE MAJOR PROFESSIONS** published by the Institute of Higher Education, as announced in the *BULLETIN* of October 1957, have since been increased by the issue of bibliographies dealing with the program of liberal studies in the undergraduate curricula of agriculture, engineering, journalism, nursing and pharmacy. Copies may be obtained free of charge by writing to Earl J. McGrath, Executive Officer, Institute of Higher Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, N. Y.

**NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS** will launch this summer, with a grant of \$174,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York,

a program for encouraging more talented high school students to attend college. The program grows out of previous work done by the association's Committee on Articulation of High Schools and Colleges and will start with workshops for high school administrators and counselors at five universities. The first workshop will be held 23-27 June on the campus of the University of Michigan. In explaining the need for the program, Clyde Vroman, director of admissions at the University of Michigan and chairman of the Committee on Articulation, said: "Methods designed to identify students who should go to college have little effect, unless they are followed up by action to guide and motivate students in the right direction. The lack of such action programs is the major bottleneck in helping superior students realize the maximum of their potentials in ability and talent."

**A** NEW FELLOWSHIP PROGRAM, recommended by the Inter-American Committee of Presidential Representatives, will be introduced on 1 July 1958 by the Organization of American States. Grants will be available to specialists throughout the Western Hemisphere who are seeking opportunities to do pure research, improve their professional skill through graduate training or take an advanced technical course. The program is intended to provide about 170 fellowships for 1958-59 and a minimum of 500 annually in the future. OAS hopes that advanced study abroad will not only benefit the individual candidate but also increase his contribution to the welfare of his country of residence. Awards will be made by the Secretary General of OAS, who will take into account the views of member states on their most urgent needs, as well as the merits of each candidate, and will endeavor over the years to maintain a balance in the distribution of fellowships corresponding with those needs. Enquiries should be addressed to Technical Secretary, OAS Fellowship Program, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C.

**C**ONSOLIDATED FREIGHTWAYS, INC. of Menlo Park, California is offering "Highway to Learning" scholarships of \$500, plus a cash grant of \$250 in support of the general educational budget of any private college or university selected by a scholarship winner, to high school seniors living in terminal cities served by the company, its divisions or subsidiaries. Winners

will be chosen on the basis of their scholastic records, extra-curricular activities, personal statements, faculty recommendations and their aptitude and promise for the teaching profession. Eighteen of the 24 first-year college scholarships will be given to students living in communities of less than 75,000 people and the other six to students from cities with populations of more than 75,000.

**FOR THE FIFTH SUCCESSIVE YEAR**, twelve outstanding American college students have been awarded two-year scholarships to British universities under the Marshall Scholarship Program established by the United Kingdom Government as a gesture of appreciation to the United States for the aid received by Britain under the Marshall Plan. The successful candidates will begin their studies next October at four British universities: Oxford, Cambridge, London and Exeter.

**UNITED STATES NATIONAL STUDENT ASSOCIATION** has received a grant of \$25,000 from the Fund for the Advancement of Education for a one-year program to develop student responsibility in relation to the basic problems of American higher education. Fifteen colleges (twelve of which are members of the Association of American Colleges) have been chosen as pilot campuses on which the project will seek to focus student attention on faculty shortages, the effectiveness of college teaching and the need for more counseling for both high school and college students. In the words of Ray Farabee, President of USNSA and a law student of the University of Texas, "Demands on our system of higher education are so great that they cannot be met by present methods and facilities. Increasing the student's responsibility for his own education is a relatively revolutionary method of solving these problems. Students, along with faculty and administration, must now assume a more active role in the formulation of educational policy, not only for the sake of their own development as responsible members of the college or university but also because of their immediate stake in the effectiveness of their own education."

**MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN STUDIES**, located at San Carlos Borromeo Mission in Carmel on the Monterey

Peninsula of California, is offering its fourth summer session of studies at both undergraduate and graduate levels, from 7 July through 22 August 1958. Courses will be given in the French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish languages, in the civilization of the countries in which they are spoken, and in history, law, political arts and international economic relations. The Monterey Peninsula is the site of a variety of educational institutions, including the Army Language School, three U. S. Navy postgraduate schools, two junior colleges, the Carmel Art Institute and the Hopkins Marine Institute of Stanford University, and provides an attractive setting for summer study. Full information and application forms for the summer session may be obtained from Monterey Institute of Foreign Studies, Admissions Office, P. O. Box 1522, Monterey, California.

**A** WORKSHOP IN FUND RAISING will be offered by the School of Education of Syracuse University at its Chautauqua Center, Chautauqua, New York, during the summer session from 7 through 18 July. This is the twelfth year that the workshop will be given under the direction of Bernard P. Taylor, who founded it in 1947. Mr. Taylor has been actively engaged in college fund raising for 29 years and is now executive director of the Penn State Foundation of the Pennsylvania State University. He will be assisted by Harold R. Thompson, secretary of the American City Bureau, and Paul Rydell of the R. R. Donnelley Company, both of Chicago. Over 175 colleges and universities have sent one or more representatives to the workshop. Enquiries may be addressed to the Director, Workshop in Fund Raising, Room 107 Old Main, University Park, Pennsylvania.



## WERE SPUTNIK'S SCAPEGOATS SUPERFLUOUS?

JAMES STACY COLES

PRESIDENT, BOWDOIN COLLEGE

**E**NTER Explorer, 1958 Alpha! *Excelsior!* Exit depression, despondency and despair.

How facile are we Americans in our changing moods, with modulations almost without relation to the basic stabilizing truths that guide our actual course. Prior to the major breakthrough into the space age with the orbiting of the first man-made satellite last October 4th, we were incredulous at any suggestion that the Russians were capable of a significant scientific achievement. In the seventeen long weeks and one short day from that time until 31 January 1958, we were running scared in frenzied excitement, believing all was lost.

But the re-entry problem was not difficult. The 108 megacycle purr of 1958 Alpha, with its reassuring news that her interior temperatures range from 10° to 30° centigrade and the intensity of cosmic radiation in outer space was at 30 counts per second—somewhat less than expected—returned us peacefully to complacent somnolence. From these wild spins, is it possible that we ourselves can ever be spin stabilized, or are we forever doomed psychologically to that free floating weightlessness which is to be the common experience of space travel?

When Sputnik was launched and coursing its trajectory over the Americas some fifteen times each day, the thought lurked in many minds that hydrogen bombs might be dropped from similar devices. To a much greater degree than anyone anticipated, Sputnik itself was an explosive bomb, in that its launching had repercussions in the United States reverberating with far more intensity than any actual explosion. The Russians quickly found a dog for Sputnik and launched Pupnik. Here at home we hysterically searched for scapegoats for Sputnik, and launched, in what Crawford Greenewalt calls the "furore set off by the satellites" and in a torrent of national pride, a sudden outburst of concern for intellectualism, at least so far as science was concerned.

The reverberations resounded throughout the nation and the most likely scapegoat turned out to be our educational system

from sub-primary grades through high school, college and graduate school. At the end of the countdown the apprehensive, startled cry which rose from the launching pad was: "What is wrong with American education?"

In any explosion there is much fire and confusion, pressure and shock, brickbats, dust and smoke. After a holocaust we must wait for the smoke and confusion to clear and for some of the debris to be removed in order that the actual situation may be accurately assessed. Perhaps now sufficient time has elapsed to permit a more contemplative analysis.

Just what is the situation in the United States with respect to education? Are we deficient in science education? Have we failed in training scientists as able as Russia's? If there is weakness, where is it? Are college teachers right in so quickly blaming high school, and in turn, high school teachers right in blaming elementary schools? Is the answer in greater emphasis on science and engineering, with perhaps a generous federal scholarship program for the training of scientists and engineers? Where does fact lie?

Recognizing that the launching of an instrumented earth satellite was a distinguished achievement, scientifically it was probably not so difficult as the production of the first atomic bomb, the Salk vaccine or the Zero Energy Thermonuclear Apparatus (Zeta). It was thus neither lack of scientific manpower nor lack of brainpower in the United States which kept us from being the first nation to launch an earth satellite. Rather it is the assignment of our national scientific and engineering endeavor which determined that we should be second. The same scientists, together with others of caliber equal to those involved in the Alamogordo tests in 1945, have been working in their laboratories since World War II, just as they were before. Wernher von Braun and William H. Pickering were ready and available for satellite work long before they were given the go-ahead last October. The question to be resolved is: How badly did we as a nation want those scientists to work on any given project? Did we wish to assign national support and effort to a satellite or elsewhere? Was a satellite urgent enough business to divert scientists from more basic and fundamental research of their own choosing? Even more important, was the satellite race so essential to win to make our federal

scientific enterprises inviting and satisfactory situations for scientific careers—not only in terms of salary and emoluments but in terms of freedom from stultifying harassment and vindictive inquisition? These are the pertinent questions which must be answered relative to Sputnik's furore and our place in the sun, or rather our place in the heavens.

In point of fact, our failure insofar as Sputnik was concerned is not evidence of inadequacies of scientific brain power so much as it is evidence of ineptness in assessing psychological impact. As a nation we did not comprehend the tremendous propaganda advantage accruing to the first nation to launch an earth satellite. Those isolated individuals proclaiming this belief years ago gained no important adherents, any more than did Dr. Robert H. Goddard for rocketry during his pioneering life. They convinced no one in high position, nor the public generally, of the reasonableness and practicality of what were probably regarded as starry-eyed visionary dreams. Our failure was in knowing human values—the working of human minds. Not only were we lacking in assessing this impact on the peoples of foreign nations but we had no conception of its impact upon our own citizens. Evidence of lack of wisdom? Yes! A failure of science and the education of scientists? No! Clearly, our inadequacies and shortcomings are more broadly based.

Sound training for social scientists and humanists is at least as necessary, for it is not in science that we find our most difficult and perplexing problems. Who for example will achieve the agreements governing the use and exploitation of outer space? Does Explorer's larger orbit establish United States sovereignty over all it circumscribes? Who is being educated to answer such questions? The present flaw in our society has been in the absence of respect and the lack of high esteem for intellectual pursuits. Too much is the emphasis upon doers as opposed to thinkers. Businessmen bridle at this, for most of them are doers, and obviously successful doers also think.

Doers are essential. But just as we cannot do without doers, neither can we do without thinkers. And if we are to be successful as thinkers, we must respect those who think for the sake of thinking alone. We need an anti-missile missile to destroy anti-intellectualism.

Egghead as an epithet must be exiled! As Dr. James R.

Killian puts it, "hot minds" are more important than "hot rods." Our concerns in our educational system must be for the primacy of the academic program not only in select colleges and universities, but in all colleges and universities. As a people we must be not only willing but anxious to spend more on books and basic research than we spend on admissions to athletic events and movies and other amusements. The three-fold sum spent in 1956 on admissions to such events relative to our spending for books or basic research, seems to say in Edwin L. Dale's words, "... that creature comforts have meant much more to us than the high work of education and research and even of survival."

This is not a whitewash report on American education. It is not meant to be such. Our entire educational system has not done the job it could do, nor the job it should do. But, unfortunately, in its inadequacies and in its softness it has reflected the national mores. This is perhaps natural and justifiable, but at the same time it is completely inexcusable. Instead of reflecting the national mores, education should be setting them at higher and higher levels.

Educational standards have been lax in many areas and instances. Educational philosophies, at least in their early 20th-century stage of development, have comingled and misinterpreted equality and democracy through their concern for mass education, and have thus denied education and training to the individual according to his ability. In unsuccessfully trying to raise the slower learners to the level of the average, the gifted have been retarded and the average itself has been depressed.

Colleges, in lieu of holding to former high standards for admission and for graduation, which in turn required high-level achievement to be met by preparatory schools, have oftentimes lowered standards to the level of mediocrity. Without the necessity to meet high college entrance standards, secondary schools have reacted in a not unexpected fashion and the efforts of teachers, and more important the efforts of students, have fallen off. Even more important, in the home parents themselves have not held their children to the intensity of effort and the code of conduct requisite for us to be a people as dedicated to democracy as were our illustrious forebears of the 18th century.

As individuals, do we each set the proper example? Are we sufficiently dedicated in our own lives? Are we willing to sacrifice self for family and community? Do we recognize that as much time, thought and effort are required to mold a child's character as to mold a beautiful sculpture? I doubt it.

To whatever extent the United States has failed, it is our citizenry that has failed. And we shall suffer a larger failure unless we can be roused in dedicated concern, convinced that *individual effort* on the part of each of us is what is needed.

As citizens we fail, if when in travail we merely turn to the government to solve *our* problems of education. We fail if we see no solution outside of liberal federal aid. We fail as citizens when we blame Washington for lack of leadership in not outlining specifically a program to cure educational ills which, when carefully diagnosed, are obviously best subject to local therapy. We fail when we cry that the billion dollars for federal aid to education is too little too late—rather than put our own shoulders to the wheel, to do our own part.

If could but each college man and woman in the United States share that dedicated concern, and bring to bear at the local level in every city, town and hamlet, in every school and every schoolroom, the necessary influence and support, educational standards would be raised overnight.

Mathematics can be well taught as easily as it is poorly taught—to the same child in the same schoolroom with the same blackboard and the same chalk. No more effort is required to write a word with the right spelling than is for the wrong. Good history is no harder to teach than is bad. Most often an inadequate teacher can, with proper stimulation and encouragement, become an able teacher, holding high standards for his students. The same dollars that pay the salary of an incompetent teacher will go toward the salary of a fine teacher, even though they need occasionally to be augmented.

These essential factors for good education are all subject to the control of the local community and the local school board. It is up to citizens to interest themselves in them constructively, and to lend support and encouragement to, and to demand fine performance from, the schools. When the confidence and sustenance which our schools must have comes to them, prerequisite



will be understanding and appreciation on the part of the whole community.

Through able leadership standards of pupil performance can be remarkably raised; at the same time the morale of both students and teachers will rise to heights never before attained. This accomplishment will cost but little more than would be necessary for a mundane operation. Equally important, accompanying it is a greater bargain for the taxpayer's school dollar in terms of the quantity and quality of education purchased. Essentially this achievement results from intelligent devotion on the part of teachers and principals, *and parents*, coupled with the strong support of the local citizenry. Success in this has been achieved in many communities across the United States, and is attainable in any community which earnestly desires better schools.

It is my conviction that the state of education in the United States is in its ascendancy. This ascendancy can be accelerated by participation of all citizens in supporting school programs, in requiring high standards of performance by teachers, and not only by that but by giving understanding support as parents in extending the work of the school into the home by individual effort and study on the part of the child. We see it around the corner, but the full turn will not come until every intelligent person willingly gives time, thought and effort.

No better could the dedication required of each in meeting the challenge of the age be emphasized than by the words of Joseph McKeen, delivered at the exercises opening Bowdoin College 156 years ago:

Literary institutions are founded and endowed for the common good, and not for the private advantage of those who resort to them for education. It is not that [their graduates] may be able to pass through life in an easy or reputable manner, but that their mental powers may be cultivated and improved for the benefit of society. If it be true no man should live for himself alone, we may safely assert that every man who has been aided by a public institution to acquire an education and to qualify himself for usefulness, is under peculiar obligations to exert his talents for the public good.



## TEACHING WITH TELEVISION

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TEACHING with television has long since passed the stage of being one of the "fads" or "frills" of education. It has become recognized as a valuable technique, worthy of careful study and controlled experimentation. The Joint Council on Educational Television reports that there are now 136 closed circuit installations in schools and universities and 28 educational stations on the air, practically all of them broadcasting instructional programs regularly. The President's Committee for Education Beyond the High School states in its second report, July 1957, that "The extensive research and experimentation now under way in the use of closed circuit television in the schools and colleges forecasts an impressive future for this educational resource. Educational television has another dimension, however. . . . When (present) construction (for stations exclusively for educational purposes) is completed, the programs of these stations will be within reach of nearly 40 per cent of our total population and will represent an investment of over \$50 million."

Impressive experiments are being conducted on every level of education. The largest test system of closed circuit television from the first grade to high school seniors is found in Hagerstown, Maryland, and the surrounding schools in Washington County. During the present school year, 1957-58, there are seventeen elementary, three junior high and two senior high schools which are equipped for teaching with television. The enrolment in the 22 schools is 10,200 pupils (elementary, 6,300, junior high, 1,700 and senior high, 2,220). One hundred and ten lessons are given each week by 23 television teachers who have no other assignment than the planning and preparation of one telecast each day.

One of the most extensive experiments in higher education is

NOTE: Dr. Henry C. Atyeo is associate professor of history at the School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, New York University. During the Spring Term of 1957, he was the instructor in a closed circuit television experiment in the teaching of history. This course, along with three others—French Reading, College Composition, Man's Cultural Heritage—offered in other schools in the university constituted an experiment of studying the use of television on the university level.

being conducted at Pennsylvania State University. Beginning in the fall term of 1954 with three courses, one in chemistry and two in psychology, the closed circuit television offering increased to eighteen courses in the spring term of 1957. A total of 4,200 students were enrolled in these courses with the largest number of students (750) located in nineteen rooms where they received instruction simultaneously in air science. The other subjects in which instruction was offered were psychology, sociology, chemistry, economics, speech, German, French, music, accounting, education, metallurgy, meteorology, electrical and industrial engineering.

From the many experiments have come numerous favorable claims for teaching with television, most of them based on necessarily limited evidence. Likewise, difficulties found in using television have often been cited, some of them real problems to be met and others seemingly little more than an exaggeration of unfounded fears. These claims and counterclaims must still be studied objectively and must be tested carefully in many teaching situations.

As we proceed to evaluate one of the recent experiments at New York University, it should be noted that emphasis is being placed upon teaching *with* rather than teaching *by* television. The difference implied here is no mere semantic distinction. It reflects recognition of the fact that television is *one* medium of communication in education, and that even though it may be the major one used, it should be so employed as to preserve the best features of classroom instruction, adding to them a new, exciting means of presenting a subject. The distinction also suggests that, in addition to the telecast, opportunity should be provided for questions and discussion and for a continuation of study and instruction in individual classrooms. Assuming such emphasis, then, let us consider the use of television in terms of purpose, situation and outcome.

### *The Purpose: The Improvement of Teaching*

Although television is often advocated as an economical method of meeting the shortage of teachers, it is also being studied as a means of improving instruction. It is this latter objective of improving teaching and not that of replacing teachers that has

prompted one of the experiments at New York University. The thesis of the study is that teaching with television makes possible enrichment of instruction which is not practicable, or in many ways even possible, in the traditional classroom.

"Of significance for the future," writes Dr. Ralph Steetle, Executive Director of the Joint Council on Educational Television, "is the impetus television has given to a reexamination of what is being taught and improving the quality of instruction. This, it is suggested, may be television's major role in instruction." The import of Dr. Steetle's statement is that teaching with television requires much more organization and careful selection of material than normally goes into planning for a lesson by lecture and discussion. This intensive preparation becomes possible only when a teacher is relieved of a full-time teaching schedule and thereby enabled to spend his entire time in the preparation of the telecast, which number at the most one a day. As pointed out in *Television in Education*, a report by the American Council on Education, "The teacher cannot let down or dawdle or wander pointlessly from the subject when facing the television camera. The stimulus seems to be to do a better job. The teacher remains on his toes." The result, the report emphasizes, is better teaching and furthermore: "This influence should carry over to teachers in the classroom. Teachers can study the technique of those being televised, and they may be influenced to improve their own teaching."

In addition to the incentive to better organization and preparation, teaching with television offers opportunity for enrichment through the use of audio-visual aids. On a single telecast far more materials may be used to enliven and emphasize subject matter than would be possible for one teacher to assemble and use in the regular classroom.

But an immediate objection is raised: Why can't the good teacher organize, plan and use visual materials as well in the classroom as on television? One answer is that some teachers can and do. The normal teaching load, however, requires a division of time and energy to cover various preparations and subjects, thus making it virtually impossible to provide for all the available aids to make the lessons "alive." The teacher needs his entire time for preparation of one thirty- or forty-minute

telecast a day. In addition, he is usually assisted by other teachers and a technical staff who help to provide the materials and operate the equipment. Teaching with television thus becomes an art, with the quality of education largely determined by experienced teachers using the best resources available in a close-up presentation to each individual pupil in the classroom. This "luxury" in teaching is economically possible, however, only when the teacher reaches many classes and hundreds of pupils.

*The Experiment: The Use of Closed Circuit  
Television in Teaching History*

With the objective in mind of using television to improve the quality of instruction, the School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance of New York University undertook an experiment designed to discover ways and means of making history live as it is being taught. The experiment was one of several conducted at New York University with the help of a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education and was under the supervision of President Carroll V. Newsom, Dean Thomas Clark Pollock of Washington Square College and Professor Harvey W. Zorbaugh, Executive Officer of the Communication Arts Group. Direction was given by Professor Richard J. Goggin, Chairman of the Department of Television, Motion Pictures and Radio and Professor Irving A. Falk, program director and producer.

The experiment included 28 telecasts in which the writer was the instructor. He was assisted in the planning of the telecasts by his associate, Mr. Wallace Sokolsky who taught three of the 28 lessons. In addition, three other instructors were used for single lessons and student panels were presented on three telecasts. The telecasts were relayed from a fully equipped studio by coaxial cable to six classrooms equipped with two television sets each. There were about 25 undergraduate students in each class and an instructor was assigned to each section. The actual number of students in the television sections was 141. There were also two control sections of 58 and 39 students which were taught by conventional methods.

The course taught was the required history of civilization course, a survey study of historical developments from the Greek

to the contemporary period. The classes met twice a week for two hours; the instruction time was divided into a fifty-minute telecast followed by a sixty-minute question, discussion and instruction period. The class instructors in each of the six classes were present from the beginning of the telecast to the end of the two-hour period. They served as a team in working with the studio instructor and in carrying on the class discussion, answering student questions and developing material which it was not possible to cover adequately on television.

The pattern followed in the planning and teaching was similar to those used in many other experiments and is one which has been found to be very satisfactory. Furthermore our experience may be considered typical of the kind of extensive preparation which is needed in the initiation of any experiment in the use of television in higher education. It can best be reviewed by tracing briefly the steps which were taken in preparation and presentation.

1. The content of the course was thoroughly reevaluated to determine the subject matter which was essential. This evaluation took a semester of planning and was used in regular classes a year prior to the experiment. It resulted in "squeezing the water" out of the material taught and in itself proved to be a very valuable experience.

2. The course content was divided into the number of telecasts and instruction periods available, using these divisions for regular class instruction for one semester before the experiment.

3. The content for each of the the two-hour sessions was then examined to determine what areas could be most effectively presented by television and which ones should be discussed in the tutorial period following the telecast. This planning should be done with the director producer, who understands the technical possibilities and difficulties involved in telecasting.

4. The plan of each lesson was developed thoroughly, so that the instructor became perfectly familiar with all the subject matter to be presented and with all the audio-visual materials to be used. This detailed planning began during the semester before the experiment and continued throughout the experiment. It was found that, in addition to all the preliminary planning, it was necessary to spend a full half-day working out all the details of each script the week before the telecast. It was possible to provide limited op-



portunity for practice in the studio with lights, camera, action before the experiment began. In this connection, the simple rule is, "the more, the better."

5. Additional time was found necessary in planning telecasts in which guest instructors or student panels were presented, or unusual equipment and demonstrations used.

6. Preliminary meetings were held with the instructors in the classrooms before the experiment began and then once a week during the semester in order to share with them the material to be presented on the telecasts and the areas to be discussed during the following tutorial period. These meetings proved to be exceedingly helpful to the telecast instructor because it enabled him to get from the class teachers suggestions for improvement of the succeeding lessons.

7. A feeling of self-confidence was found important in presenting the telecast. The instructor came to realize that the material might be enthusiastically presented and adequately illustrated and that teacher-student relationship could be maintained. The instructor found that, as he looked into the blank lens or at the ever-present arrow on the camera instead of at the students in the classroom, he was speaking only to *one*, and thus to each one of the students rather than to scores in the classrooms.

Teaching with television can be far more personal than is often realized because the instructor can look directly at each student at the same time and appear to be only a few feet away from the learner. In this connection, Dr. Alexander J. Stoddard, in *Schools for Tomorrow: An Educator's Blueprint*, writes, "There is something difficult to understand about the effectiveness of television that is due not alone to the combining of sight and sound in experience. Perhaps it is the fact that it can bring personality and human reaction very close to those who listen and view. . . . The speaker or teacher can look each of us in the eye over television. . . . There is a closeness, an intimacy, a personal something about television experience that is not just seeing and hearing." The criticism that the teacher-pupil relationship is lost by the use of television is not necessarily true.

#### *The Evaluation: What Were the Outcomes?*

The objective was to discover ways in which the teaching of a required course in history may be enriched through the medium of television. Evaluation was made upon statistical data based upon student grades and upon changes in attitude and interest



as shown by questionnaires given at the beginning and the end of the experiment. A comparison of classes was made between those taught by television and those by conventional methods. Based on such evidence, it was found that there were no significant differences in learning between students in the television sections and those in the control classes.

Statistical results however do not provide a complete evaluation. They give little evidence regarding the creation of lasting interest, the vividness of impression or the retention of knowledge. Furthermore, the comparison was that of using a new technique for the first time and equating it with that of traditional methods which were familiar. It thus becomes helpful to make important observations which suggest several "extras" which have not yet been experimentally evaluated.

*First*, television provides an opportunity to present audio-visual materials which illustrate factual material and make it possible for students to "live" in a different age and culture through dramatic portrayal of that period. The visual aids were always used to illustrate a point; they served as means, not ends in themselves. In the experiment in history, pictures or slides, and often both, were used extensively. Most of the pictures were blown up (12 by 18 inches the preferred size), mounted and used in displays. In addition, some were small pictures in books which the camera could enlarge to full screen, bringing out details never possible in using the book in the classroom. It was found that almost every event in history could be made more real through pictures of drawings, illustrations and paintings or, for recent events, photographs. It was surprising to discover the wealth of material available when a systematic search was made. At the end of one telecast, the floor manager turned to the instructor, wearily sighing, "Do you realize we used 63 pictures on this one telecast?"

Films and film strips were also of value. Often a short film, seldom more than ten minutes in length, was used to illustrate a topic. Frequently only a short sequence was used at a time, then cutting away from the film to the instructor and later back to it again. Educational clip films, taken from full-run movies such as "Julius Caesar," "The Crusades" and "A Tale of Two Cities," also helped to recreate the periods studied.

Displays were helpful in presenting artifacts or models of things common to the period. In the lesson on the beginnings of modern science—discoveries of Galileo, Kepler, Newton—demonstrations were made of the solar system and the inclined plane. Whenever an important author and his works were discussed, the camera panned in on the title page of his book, and selections from his writings were televised by use of a crawl.

Particularly important in visualization were globes, maps, charts, magnetic blackboards and art pads. The latter two were used to present graphic changes in history illustrating progress from an early simple pattern to a more complex one and to provide outlines which could be discussed by the instructor. In a discussion of government for instance, lettered cards of positions from King, Senate, Assembly to President, Cabinet, Congress were placed on the magnetic blackboard as they were discussed. In this way the students could follow the development from the early, simple political organization of a city-state to a modern, complex nation-state. Or, in an analysis of causes of World War II the underlying factors were printed successively on a large art pad which the student could readily see and easily copy as they were being discussed.

Recordings were used extensively. A musical signature and a short film produced for the course, showing a lighted globe of the world and giving the credits, was used at the opening of each telecast. Often selections from the great masters were used for background music; occasionally the stirring songs of the age, e.g., "The Marseillaise" and "It's a Long Way to Tipperary" were used. The planning for each telecast consisted of a search for materials which were available and then the selection of only those which were educationally valuable. This task alone is extremely time-consuming, but it is equally challenging and seemed to be the most valuable contribution which television may make possible.

*Secondly*, teaching with television necessitates a constant reexamination of material and method. Partly because of its newness and, more importantly, because it is a difficult technique to use, the telecast instructor and the students find a need for greater concentration than in the familiar setting of the classroom. Teaching the first lesson with television is a frightening

experience, and so, to an extent, is teaching each of the others as well. It is also a challenging one. It requires "lecture planning" at its best. It necessitates full command of language, subject matter, visual material and television techniques. When the teacher gets the signal that the telecast is being transmitted, he is very much on his own, and he must have so planned the instruction with the director that he uses the time to achieve the greatest benefits by the finest teaching possible. The experience is so vivid and the desire to convey the maximum is so great that self-evaluation of each lesson follows naturally. Ever before the instructor are the questions, "Was this material worth presenting in this way?" and, "How can the presentation be improved?"

The difficulties need not in themselves be discouraging. Practice and experimentation may provide for more effective teaching because of the very problems faced. Television is a new and exciting technique which can lead to careful reexamination of what is taught and how it is taught. Frequently since the experiment, as the writer has returned to the conventional lecture method, he has found himself saying as he tried to illustrate a point with a picture, chart or outline, "I wish that I had a television camera here to bring this up to full size so that each of you could see all of it."

Students also find that the use of television demands concentration and necessitates a different approach as they learn visually. In fact, the writer soon discovered that the students had as much to learn as he did about the best way to use the medium. As one student expressed his difficulty, "So many things happen that I cannot take my eyes from the set. The lesson moves so rapidly that I cannot possibly take notes."

Student reactions changed markedly during the experiment. At first the students looked upon the telecast as a form of entertainment and a pleasant experience. They were attentive in watching, but were slow in taking notes or in jotting down questions which could be answered during the tutorial period. After the first eight or nine lessons they rated as "most interesting," a dramatic presentation on the death of Julius Caesar.

However, when the students discovered that just as much work was involved in study at home and concentration in class as in other non-televized courses, their attitude changed from enthusi-

astic approval to mild tolerance. The midterm test proved to be the low point in morale, accompanied by some criticism of the telecasts. Toward the end of the term a third attitude became apparent. The students began to discover that there were possibilities in the use of television which were educationally significant and that they could use the telecast to take notes and learn rapidly. By the time the course ended, student comments indicated that they felt a growing appreciation of television as a new medium and wished that they could use it again.

*Thirdly*, teaching with television makes one aware that he is learning to use a new means of communication with possibilities which may as yet be undiscovered. Not until we feel that we are using television "at its best" and can compare it with other forms of presentation, also at their best, can we begin to make valid comparisons. Somewhere between the warning of the cynic and the praise of the enthusiast probably lies its value. Addressing the conference of the Association for Higher Education in Chicago, 5 March 1957, Professor Earl C. Kelley of Wayne State University said: "Television is a real and present menace to the freedom of the teacher and the learner. . . . The machine has almost 'got' us already. . . . The television screen can become the final triumph of the machine over man." The affirmative side was presented at the same conference by John W. Taylor, executive director of Chicago's Educational Television Station, WTTW, who maintained that "Man-power needs today demand that we explore means and methods by which we can increase the productivity of our available teaching staffs, both in quantity and quality of teaching."

The conclusions to be drawn from the teaching of history with television in the School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance indicate that it is a technique which has many advantages. It offers unusual opportunity for the enrichment of instruction through visual presentation; it challenges the teacher in his selection of material and in its presentation, and it enables the student to learn with a concentration and vividness which should make longer retention possible. Television is with us as a medium of communication. Let us learn to use it effectively as a means of instruction.

## A MOZART FESTIVAL UNDER THE ARTS PROGRAM

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**G**IOVANNI BAGAROTTI, Italian-born violinist, came from New York City to this little college town and played the eight Mozart violin concertos in two consecutive evenings (25-26 October 1957). The presentation of such a *tour de force* is in itself an accomplishment worth noting. This event turned out to be worthy of more than passing notice, for Mr. Bagarotti achieved success in phases of his field which few artists seem to bother with or take seriously these days in their travels outside metropolitan concert halls.

Regardless of the pro and con arguments about the authenticity of these eight concertos, despite whatever preconceived notions and prejudices a concert-goer may have in anticipating listening to four Mozart concertos in a sitting, two nights in a row, and despite the presence of such discouraging hurdles as a very real flu epidemic and the shocking news of the sudden death of one of our beloved friends in this little community just before concert time, the concerts were well attended and gratefully received.

Whether one overheard the comments of a retired minister's wife or one of the townspeople who came because he "likes music," or whether one sought a sampling of the reactions of students and faculty, the overwhelming impression was one of warm approval. When an informer was prodded with a question such as "But didn't you find it a bit monotonous to listen to an entire program of Mozart concertos?" the answer was more likely than not to be: "Well, I might have had some reservations before the concert, but you know, I didn't realize that there could be so much stimulation and variety in Mozart."

Here was justification in our visiting artist's dedicated crusade on behalf of the Mozart violin concertos. Mr. Bagarotti has seen the vision clearly and has applied his energies and missionary zeal with the result that his performances in this community resulted in more than just an ordinary success.

But even more important than the success of the concerts was the cultural and artistic contributions which Mr. Bagarotti and his charming wife made in their contacts with students and



others. Mr. Bagarotti's rehearsals with the college orchestra provided the members with a challenge and inspiration that has fired a new interest and enthusiasm in their art. When asked to speak to a class in music appreciation, our visitors from New York responded gladly.

Their genuine interest in people, their willingness to take their meals in the college cafeterias, for example, provided opportunities for all kinds of students to rub shoulders and exchange ideas with our visiting apostles of music, to their mutual pleasure.

With the concerts over, the Bagarottis graciously consented to hear and criticize performances of several selected student violinists. Through the grapevine other students learned of this, with the result that over half of the string section of the orchestra showed up for what turned out to be a stimulating seminar and bonus recital.

When viewed against the background of the proud history of musical accomplishment and traditions of this college community which boasts of the St. Olaf Lutheran Choir, what started out to be a concert appearance distinguished mainly by the uniqueness of its program, in the end became a significant contribution to the motivation and cultural advancement of this community.

Much has been said about the need for developing our culture and promoting the cause of live music, but often the pious phrases and the convincing arguments are overwhelmed by the pathetic realities of our *ersatz* diet of television, radio and slick recordings. If there are remedies they have not been generally applied.

The experience of last week's music festival in this small college town suggests that the cause is not hopeless.



## LEADERSHIP AND LIBERAL EDUCATION

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THE average tenure in office of a college president in this country is, I understand, about four years. The mere fact that President Montgomery has been both able and willing to lead this college and to keep it afloat for two and a half decades, and incidentally to outlive or outlast all those who were heads of other colleges in Ohio when he took the helm at Muskingum, may be properly considered in itself a distinguished achievement. It indicates a rare combination of faith, intelligence, integrity, self-control, intestinal fortitude, devotion, knowledge of human nature, salesmanship and practical managerial ability. Those of us who knew Bob in college can well be proud that one of our fellow alumni has shown such ability. But the fact that Bob Montgomery has not merely presided over Muskingum successfully for so long a period but has also led it year by year to a position of increasing service and distinction in the many communities of which it is a part is an achievement which calls for more than ordinary recognition and acclaim.

Why, we may ask, is the usual tenure in office of a college president only a small fraction of the years Bob has already devoted to service as president of Muskingum? The reasons are doubtless many but they may be summed up by saying that, to be successful, a college president must have the executive and managerial abilities needed to run a large business and at the same time a dedication to educational service which leads him to turn his back on the financial rewards his talents could command in the competitive market of American society and instead to devote his ability and his energy and his spirit to the task of being a true minister—the servant of those who attempt to serve the best intellectual and spiritual interests of our society.

Let me suggest a few of the varied problems which a college president must face day by day and year by year. For one, he finds himself the responsible chief officer of a curious sort of financial enterprise. The college for which he is responsible is

NOTE: Address delivered at the celebration of the 25th anniversary of Dr. Robert N. Montgomery as president of Muskingum College.

not a business, and yet in many ways it is a business. The college president must somehow get together the income to pay the expenses of an institution with buildings, grounds, employees, dormitories and dining rooms, not to mention promotion, laboratory supplies, insurance, interest on the debt, sweaters for the football team and the bricks and mortar needed for new buildings. A college is the kind of business that can easily fail but cannot, as a business, succeed. It can go bankrupt if it gets too seriously in the red, but it sells its product at a loss and is never really in the black, save for temporary bookkeeping purposes.

Further, a college, while a separate legal foundation, is intimately related to and supported by many communities, none of which really quite understands it. It is a major responsibility of the college president to keep the relation of his college to its various communities close, amicable and mutually beneficial. Each of these communities has its own demands, its own internal logic and its own way of telling the college president, both privately and publicly, just how the college ought to be run.

The communities include, for example, the local geographical communities—New Concord, Muskingum and Guernsey counties, the State of Ohio and the United States of America. I trust that New Concord has always supported Muskingum generously and never criticized the college adversely. To the degree that this is true, it is a tribute to the leadership of the president. It is also, incidentally, extraordinary. If in the future any differences of opinion should arise between this college and its local community I might remind the president that only in the last few months have Oxford University and the city of Oxford, after 600 years, come to speaking terms; that the opinions of many citizens of Cambridge, Massachusetts, about Harvard University are not fit to print; and that every advance New York University has made at Washington Square has been over, it would sometimes seem, the dead though still shrieking bodies of half the residents of Greenwich Village.

Again, Muskingum is part of the community which is the United Presbyterian Church. One of the tasks of the president of a church-related college is to keep his college closely related to the church which is in one real sense its fostering mother. He must encourage the church, which must depend on the college

for many of its future leaders and for a major role in keeping its intellectual tradition alive and growing, to support the college more adequately than in recent decades many churches actually have. At the same time, he must maintain the individual integrity of his college and help the members of the church community to distinguish between the needs and methods of a college of liberal arts and science, on the one hand, and on the other, the needs and methods of a Sunday school.

Further, the college president must keep his college closely and cooperatively related to the world of education, including the secondary schools from which the students come, the graduate and professional schools to which many of them go and the other institutions of higher education of which his college is both a close colleague and a friendly competitor. This last relation must be extremely close, for each college is nourished by the great tradition of liberal education, of humanistic and scientific learning and values, of which any one college is in a real sense merely an exemplar. At the same time, the relation must be in the best sense competitive, with the independent private college not ceasing to be itself because of certain advantages in tax-supported higher education; with the small college not ceasing to be itself because larger colleges have certain advantages; with Muskingum, in particular, not ceasing, because these are certain advantages in non-sectarian education, to incorporate into itself and transmit to its students the special advantages and insights inherent in the general Christian and the specifically Presbyterian tradition.

Finally, the college must keep in close relation to the community of its alumni, widely scattered geographically though they usually are. Much of the time and skill of a college president must go to keeping the alumni as close as possible to the college which is their alma mater and to persuading them to give their college the financial sinews and moral support it needs.

So far I have mentioned some of the external communities of which a college is a part and to which the president must keep it closely related. Even more obviously, a college is a kind of large permanent manorial estate, with hundreds of inhabitants, and the college president is for a brief span its squire and bailiff. Day by day, hour by hour, he must keep it going, must keep the

people in it working harmoniously at their various tasks in a kind of a feudal democracy; and if anything goes wrong, from the food in the dining halls to the dating habits of the co-eds, it is his fault.

This college community includes at least three groups, with each of which the president must have a close though different kind of relationship. Legally first is the board of trustees, the absentee landlords whom the president must encourage to be actively interested in the college, devoted to developing its general policies and to securing the support it needs for stability and growth, while they leave to the president the executive freedom he needs to be a good manager of the estate.

The administrators and faculty members compose the most permanent of the three groups. Their quality and their ability for teamwork can make or break a college. They are the career-specialists whom the president must select, encourage to throw in their lot with his college rather than some other, and help to work continuously toward its central goals. They are all specialists; each knows far more in his own field than the president can ever hope to know; they are usually gifted men with critical minds, and they have wives.

The third group is the students, whose lives are the purpose of the whole process, young individuals, growing from adolescence toward maturity. They are eager, malleable, intelligent, critical, explosive and wonderful; and the president must be to them an understanding friend and a substitute father. It is continuing tribute to Muskingum's leader that generation after generation of students know him as "President Bob."

Some of the problems involved in managing a college may be suggested by this incident. Some years ago I was dean of a college about the size of Muskingum. The president was a man of high repute who had been in office about twenty years. One day he asked me to speak to the superintendent of buildings and grounds, a man of ability who had been in office some 35 years, about getting a particular matter done, and he urged me to be sure that it was done. Sensing a problem, I spoke to the superintendent about this with all the persuasive skill I could muster. The superintendent told me that he did not want to do it, that he had told the president this and that he did not intend to do

it. Our discussion went on until I made it clear that I wanted it done and was prepared to see that it was done. Finally the superintendent capitulated with the words: "OK, Tom, If you really want it done, I'll do it. But I'll tell you this—I've seen presidents come and I've seen presidents go."

Or some of the problems a president faces may be suggested by the comment of one of the professors of New York University, a reasonably amicable man of distinguished reputation, who recently complained at a university meeting that since he had come to the university, and I quote, he had had "four presidents shot out from under" him.

So far I have been suggesting some of the practical, day-by-day problems which make the position of college president so demanding and long tenure in a presidency so rare. But leadership in liberal education demands more than the successful meeting of current problems. It requires that, while the college president keeps his institution going, he also charts its course in the right direction. He must keep his nose to the grindstone but at the same time study the stars. He must have the knowledge and insight to see and to help others see both the essential nature of liberal education and the new conditions in which the students who are being educated are living and will have to live. The true measure of a college president is found in his ability to help his college educate young men and women to live wisely and creatively in the future.

In one sense, the meaning of liberal education does not change much from generation to generation: but in another sense, it changes as the general conditions of life change. The relation between New York City and this part of Ohio has not changed much since the days of the covered wagon, in one sense; but in another, the relation between life in New York and life along the Muskingum River has in recent generations changed radically. My life in Ohio today depends upon conditions of society and technology which permit me to be in New York yesterday and back in New York tomorrow.

We live in an increasingly dynamic society. The most important new factor in the conditions of our lives is the rapid pace of change. This pace is not only rapid but increasingly rapid. Further, we may expect it to continue, because it depends upon



an unprecedented releasing of the creative energies of the human race on a world-wide scale. From now on we must expect increasingly swift change to be a principle of life.

There are two chief elements in this rapid change which both define its cause and make special demands on educated men and women. The first is the increase in scientific and technological knowledge. We are gaining scientific information about, and control over, our environment, including our own bodies, at an astounding rate, and the rate is increasing. Ten per cent of the goods sold in this country last year, I am told, had not been invented five years ago. Eighty-five per cent of the prescriptions American doctors are writing this year call for drugs which were not known fifteen years ago. We know how to produce so much now that our problem in the United States is not how to produce but how to consume. And every major industry is putting five or ten per cent of its income into research to discover how to make new things. We have learned through scientific method how to learn rapidly, whether in the field of chemistry or polio research or the psychology of brain-washing; and we have learned through engineering technology how to produce rapidly, whether automobiles or drugs or rockets to the moon.

Second, the impact of man's new knowledge and technology is now world-wide. Airplanes do not fly over the United States alone. The impact of twentieth-century change is felt not only by people of one race or one religion or one geographical area or one state of civilization. It is felt on the banks of the Indus and the Euphrates and the Congo as well as the Ohio. The Russian-launched Sputnik now rapidly circling the earth is a healthy reminder to us that scientific knowledge and technology are not an American monopoly and that change in the latter half of the twentieth century is both rapid and world-wide.

The changing conditions of human life on this planet make new demands on all of us, and especially on those of us who are younger and must be prepared to live longer into the changing future. Briefly, the new demands are two. First, we must master rapidly at least the general principles of the scientific and technical knowledge we are developing, and a number of us must master all the details of particular fields and contribute to the



development of new knowledge. Further, we must learn to do this, as it were, on the fly. We must learn to read while we run. We must develop the ability to use the incredible new knowledge we are developing. We Americans are pretty good at this but the Russian earth-satellites are helping us realize we are not quite as good as we thought.

The second demand is harder. We must make the necessary personal, psychological and social adjustments to the new social problems created or stimulated by these new scientific tools. This is hard for those of us with, as G. K. Chesterton used to say, pinko-gray, if not white, skins who were born into a comparatively free society with the highest scale of living in the world. It is hard for all men everywhere. It is not easy for men to change. The natural man says no. Our values are psychologically intertwined with all of the social conditions in which they were learned. It is hard to adjust wisely to the new values of life without getting them all mixed up with the accidental elements in our social history.

An example may be taken from early Christian history. The early Christians, you will remember, were Jews. Our Lord was a Jew. All that the earliest Christians knew about the central values of life and Christianity they had learned in a context of Jewish culture. It was therefore entirely natural for them to assume that before one could be a Christian one must first be a Jew. It took the vision of Saint Peter on his way to see Cornelius and all the zeal and hortatory skill of Saint Paul after the road to Damascus to help the early Christians learn that one did not need to be a Jew first in order to become a good Christian.

In the middle of the twentieth century, we must learn to adjust quickly, continuously and creatively to new situations, new facts, new people and people in new situations, with which our earlier training has often not prepared us to cope intellectually or emotionally. And the problems today are world-wide. The historian Arnold Toynbee tells of a problem which the Labor Government in England faced a few years ago. Labor was now in power but found that it could not keep down the price of tea, which in England is a staple necessity for workers. The reason proved to be, ironically, that the workers in the tea plantations of Assam were demanding and getting more for *their* labor.

These new conditions of twentieth-century life pose the problem for leadership in liberal education. How can we be human in an age of machines? How can we use machines for humane purposes, not inhuman?

The college president must lead in helping young people grow to wise and creative maturity in a world of new knowledge and develop the trained intellects that can understand, control and contribute to a world dominated by scientific and technical discovery and the insistent new goal of a better chance for all men everywhere. At the same time, he must help the students to learn to react, not in terms of the natural man, the old Adam, or to use more modern terminology, their lower nerve centers, but in the spirit of Christ; not in terms of the attitude of Paul when he held the coats of those who stoned Stephen, or of Peter when he denied his Lord thrice because that was the easiest way to get along at the moment in his local environment, but in terms of Paul after the road to Damascus, and of Peter after his vision that what God had created was not unclean, despite the belief to the contrary of the society in which he had learned his values.

The president must help the students of his college to become men and women of true knowledge, of intellectual and spiritual cultivation and of good will. He must help them to seek the essentials in each new personal and social situation in which they find themselves, and to distinguish the substance from the shadow. He cannot anticipate all the new situations and new problems they will meet as their lives go on in the dynamic scientific society of America and the world in the next fifty years. But he can help them to face their human problem in each new situation so that in it they will be, not part of the problem, but part of the answer.

## A LOOK AT THE FOREIGN STUDENT

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**P**ERHAPS it is appropriate that someone discuss the dilemma of the foreign student or, to be more correct, perhaps it is always pertinent to discuss the non-American on the campus. But who should lead the discussion: foreign student, his American student roommate, the college official involved, the academician not involved? Perhaps one, some, or all, should be consulted, but to explore a slightly different frame of reference, here are the impressions of an American who was an alien on a foreign campus.

To point up problems on a sliding scale of urgency is extremely difficult as each problem is critical at one time or another to the degree that it threatens a continuation of study through failure to find housing, finance a minimum standard of living or satisfy administrative or academic requirements. It must be acknowledged that problems encountered in one country may not be met in the same degree in another country—just as the problems may differ from one American institution to another. The aim is not to present *all* problems with solutions but rather to point up the scope of the difficulties and to emphasize their importance to the student.

The most obvious problem is that of language, the importance of which may not be truly appreciated. From the point of view of the student, the tendency is to feel a premature competence in a foreign language which—with a corresponding tendency on the part of instructors to assume mastery—often results in unrealistic efforts by the student and fantastic demands by the instructor. If some first assumption is to be made it would be much better to underestimate the student's ability in English. Whether the visitor is to be tutored in English, given extra consideration for "a cultural handicap" along with the sightless and others who are physically handicapped, or placed in equal competition with the regular students is a matter for the individual professor to decide. In making that decision, however, let him be temporarily divorced from a fixation on "standards" and consider the question from non-academic

points of view. This individual will represent hundreds, thousands—perhaps millions—of persons whose ideas of the United States may be influenced by the returning student. From a purely linguistic point of view, attempting to place himself in the position of doing comparable reading in the *student's* tongue and at the same degree of mastery, should enable the teacher to estimate student capabilities within reasonable limits.

The mechanics of an unfamiliar kind of higher educational institution can be extremely frustrating to the uninitiated. The author's own experience in pacing between disinterested offices for two weeks, while attempting to establish contact with an adviser in order to process Veterans Administration forms and arrange a class schedule, is illustrative of the hopeless confusion of one in an unfriendly (or neutral) and unfamiliar situation. An academic bureaucracy must not be allowed to dull his interest and enthusiasm before the newcomer steps into a classroom. Not only must it be assumed that the foreigner is not (and cannot be) aware of collegiate red tape; it must also be assumed that all the diverse, unfamiliar situations he is suddenly confronted with will find him bewildered and anxious; even seemingly simple instructions may have to be repeated or rephrased. In a word then, an extra minute devoted to this student in the wildest rush of registration will pay off for all concerned.

As the visiting student becomes one of a sea of faces in the classroom, there are certain things that the teacher should keep in mind. First, he must be aware that much of the material will be above the student's comprehension because of the language barrier. Realistically, one would not suggest changes in the level or rate of instruction, nor would the student approve of this. However, recognition of the difficulty, and occasional pertinent remarks directed toward clarification of crucial points, would be of great help to the conscientious teacher and student. Secondly, the non-American is a potential source of information in nearly any class as an expert on applications of the subject matter in another culture; such utilization would prove extremely helpful in gaining acceptance of the foreigner by the class (and instructor) and would enrich the teaching (an obvious truism, but one seldom applied).

To an instructor schooled in the American educational scene,

classroom conundrums are typically resolved when students initiate clarification of problems. Many a foreigner has been reared in an educational atmosphere where professors rank on such a high plane that it is heretical to pose a question. The resultant impasse on an American campus can be readily overcome if teachers would attempt to break down this educational caste system in early lectures of classes including non-Americans.

Other problems not connected with school may plague the foreigner. It would be simple for an academician to rule out concern with such difficulties on the grounds that they are outside institutional responsibilities, but an interest above and beyond the purely academic is implicit in the admission of foreign students. Thus, when difficulty is encountered in finding housing, or when not infrequent problems arise with landlords, advisers and instructors as well as administrative officers should be readily available for help.

Finances are also likely to plague our guests and, here again, sympathetic guidance should be available. If the size of the financial problem seems out of proportion, it will probably be due to a desire to see something of this huge country—a desire as valid as that of Americans to see, and thus gain understanding of, foreign countries. A most important and easily overlooked factor is an unfavorable foreign exchange rate, which makes it extremely difficult for non-Americans to reach anything akin to a financial equilibrium even at the outset of their studies. Visa regulations handicap foreign students in obtaining employment to overcome money problems.

Placing manifold responsibilities within the collegiate framework may seem to foist an undue burden on the shoulders of college teacher and administrator, but are they not better able to assume the load than the foreign student? Others may reason that what is suggested is coddling, lowering of standards, etc.—would it not be more correct to speak of sympathetic understanding and an acceptance of social as well as academic responsibilities? No natural scientist interested in sharpening the inquisitive mind, no social scientist seeking to develop social and cultural understandings, can reject the challenge of the foreign student. Finally, inasmuch as the educational institution is the first, the most important—perhaps the only—stable

contact for the foreigner, it cannot honestly refuse the responsibility.

Perhaps some will refer the student to a campus agency that "adequately" handles these problems. A European professor called the author aside to ask if he were having any difficulties in that foreign institution and extended an invitation for consultation at any time help might be needed. The lecturer attributed his concern to experiences an acquaintance had on two of the largest American campuses, in the Midwest and on the Pacific Coast, where no one expressed the slightest interest in the student or his work. He did not want a similar situation there—neither do American educators want that to happen here, but it does.

One approach to rationality in relation to the foreign student would be to have every visitor living on the campus and in daily contact with an interested member of the teaching or administrative staff. Even without such intimate contact, however, a step forward will have been made if college people will remember to think often about, and talk frequently with, our student guests from abroad. It is not enough to invite foreign students into our higher academic institutions; we must welcome them in the classroom, invite them into our homes and, most important, accept them in our hearts.



## THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY MILITARY HISTORY COURSE AS AN EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION

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**T**WELVE men gathered on the Ohio State University campus in August 1957 to plan a new course in American history. Each individual had mastered the facts of the subject. Together they fashioned the substance of knowledge into teachable units.

They did this by sitting around a table and talking. After four and a half days they had created a new course. What they talked about concerned their own field of interest. Yet their implicit assumptions and their explicit accomplishments have a striking application to all who teach history to undergraduates—to the professor who is an old hand at the teaching game as to the instructor arriving on his new job fresh out of graduate school.

It was certainly the uniqueness of their problem that made the members of the group re-examine their attitudes on the function of history, look again into the process of instruction and learning and consider closely what they wished to accomplish with the body of knowledge they possessed.

In a sense, the problem was that certain students needed a new suit of clothes. The members of the group faced the task of cutting old cloth—the fabric of history—into a new garment. They had to be sure the suit would fit. How they proceeded to accomplish their task was an illuminating experience.

The field of interest discussed at Ohio State was American military history. Among the established elements of the liberal arts curriculum, military history is still tentative in character, isolated from other subjects, unclear in objectives and methods. Largely pre-empted by the military profession, it has not played the role in American education that it has in European universities, where it has been supported by old academic traditions and by permanent chairs. In the United States it has not had a continuous course of development, a refinement of aims and methods. Nor has it had the attention and the benefit of graduate training and research that are characteristic of such established fields of study as constitutional, diplomatic or economic

history. Yet the place of military history in the balanced curriculum becomes increasingly evident and its importance is likely to increase in the future.

In the absence of consensus among academic military historians on the underlying conceptions of a sound course in American military history, it has been difficult to visualize clearly the precise role and function of military history in the general history curriculum. The fundamental difficulty of formulating such a course of study was certainly lessened by the circumstances that called the group into being at Columbus, Ohio.

The late Colonel Ralph D. Mershon bequeathed a substantial sum of money to the Ohio State University several years ago to promote "civilian military education." While exploring possible ways of fulfilling the terms of the bequest, university officials in the spring of 1956 consulted with Colonel Trevor N. Dupuy, who was teaching military history for the Army at Harvard.<sup>1</sup> Colonel Dupuy made a suggestion and drew up a plan that was eventually adopted by the university. The proposal had reference to an army problem in education.

The Army had recently added a thirty-hour course in American military history to its Reserve Officer Training Corps program in the colleges, and army officers assigned to 250 institutions across the country suddenly needed to know how to teach such a course to approximately 70,000 freshmen. Unfortunately, though academic interest in military history has been increasing, there were few faculties with trained military historians, and few officers had studied the subject. Not only would the ROTC students probably fail to derive the full benefits that the Army contemplated from such a course, but the prestige of the Army was likely to suffer because the scholarship of the ROTC instructors would inevitably be compared with that of regular members of the faculty.

Colonel Dupuy suggested that the Ohio State University, with the cooperation of the Second Army, sponsor a workshop in American military history for ROTC instructors. With the Army in agreement, the University established the Ohio State

<sup>1</sup> Former Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Harvard, Colonel Dupuy is now with the Office of the Chief of Staff, U. S. Army. He is President of the American Military Institute.

University Military History Course and appointed Colonel Dupuy director. Assisted by Dr. William R. Emerson of Yale, Dr. Samuel P. Huntington of Harvard and Dr. Louis Morton of the Army's Office of the Chief of Military History, Colonel Dupuy formulated a course of study. A faculty was selected, and some eighty students from the Second Army area attended the course.

The success of the undertaking led the Ohio State University to repeat the course on an enlarged scale in 1957. The Continental Army Command, responsible for ROTC instruction, increased the attendance to 135 officers drawn from all the Army areas in the continental United States, as well as from Hawaii, Puerto Rico and Alaska. As before, the university provided classroom space, library facilities, administrative services, funds for faculty and staff. Colonel Dupuy was again the director. Dr. Harry L. Coles, Associate Professor of History and Vice Chairman of the Department of History of the Ohio State University, served as Associate Director.<sup>2</sup>

The aspect of the Ohio State University Military History Course that merits attention is the method by which the joint civilian-military faculty shaped the program of study and then tested its validity by teaching it during the summer workshop of 1957. Though it might appear that the brief span of a two-week teaching period was hardly adequate, four factors made the experiment feasible. First, more than half the faculty members had participated in a similar workshop the previous year and were well fitted to refine the concepts of the course. Second, the basic subject matter was conveniently available, in the ROTC Manual, "American Military History," prepared by the Army's Office of the Chief of Military History, and in another textbook used as a supplement, Dupuy and Dupuy, "The Military Heritage of America." Third, the ROTC student-instructors devoted a ten-hour day to intensive study and classroom activity. Fourth,

<sup>2</sup> Members of the faculty were Drs. Emerson, Huntington, and Morton, Dr. Richard D. Challener of Princeton, Dr. Warren W. Hasaler of Pennsylvania State University, Captain Richard J. Arnold, Assistant PMS&T, The Ohio State University, Major Ronan C. Grady, Jr., former instructor at the U. S. Military Academy, Majors Henry P. Kutichinski, Jr. and Rex D. Minekler of the Military Art and Engineering Department, USMA, and Lt. Colonel Joseph E. Pizzi, former PMS&T, Kent State University.

these student-instructors were themselves made responsible for organizing into teaching units the substantive matter they were in the process of acquiring.

It is the latter point that is of particular interest to educators.

To be certain that university and army were in accord on the nature of the course, representatives from each formulated a mission: "To give the senior division ROTC instructors a background in American military history, to motivate within them a desire to create interest and enthusiasm in the subject . . . , to acquaint them with the techniques of teaching American military history, and familiarize them with additional reference material and training aids."<sup>3</sup>

This statement obscured a basic issue. The Army was interested in providing the ROTC student as a future officer with "a sound foundation in the principles of the art of warfare and of leadership as they are exemplified in American military history."<sup>4</sup> At first glance, the Army concept seemed to regard American military history as a vehicle for illustrating the principles of war and for presenting inspiring examples of military leadership. For scholars, this was hardly in itself a valid purpose for instruction in the academic sense. The Army was quite capable of conducting a course of this nature without assistance. Yet the fact that the Army welcomed academic aid seemed to be an implicit admission that it deemed its own resources not entirely adequate. Furthermore, the "sound foundation" in the army statement appeared to offer a reasonable basis for expanding what was otherwise too narrow a view.

On this inference, the faculty assembled at the Ohio State University set about to define for itself the objectives of a course in military history that would serve the Army and that would at the same time be a more mature statement of the function and nature of military history. The members started by seeking to clarify the field of military history itself, and John Ehrman's apt illustration seemed quite applicable.<sup>5</sup> He had likened history

<sup>3</sup> Fact Sheet on The Ohio State University Military History Course, 1957, pp. 2-3.

<sup>4</sup> CONARC Subject Schedule Nr. 401, June 1956, p. 1; see also Army Training Program Nr. 145-60, 17 January 1956.

<sup>5</sup> "The Navy in the War of William III," p. xxii. I am indebted to Dr. William R. Emerson for this reference.

to a cake, in which the different aspects of history—constitutional, political, social, etc.—were layers. In the same sense, military operations, logistics and the development of weapons were some of the ingredients of a comparable layer of military history. But since such matters as mobilization and the procurement of equipment and supplies are economic as well as military, since military policy has political and legal aspects, and since military organization, strategy and tactics are conditioned by social factors—to give only a few examples—military history, in proper perspective and properly considered, is really a slice of John Ehrman's cake. Military history thus defined was not only a legitimate concept and a proper scholarly concern; it also sustained the requirement of the Army for academic help.

Was this concept applicable to the Army's need? Civilian and military members of the faculty agreed that American military history had meaning and relevance for their students. But they decided that they had to define for themselves exactly what they conceived that meaning and relevance to be. If they could state in explicit terms the value of the subject matter to the student, they would thereby establish a specific course objective toward which to guide their teaching.

They concluded that the value of American military history is precisely the same as of history itself: to help the student better understand life, the world in which he lives and his own place in the society of man; also to give him practice in the use of reason and logic so that he becomes clear-headed in his thinking. What then was the relationship of the substantive matter of military history to these values? And what, to be specific, had to be presented to the student for him to have a significant and valuable classroom experience?

The answer to these questions provided purpose. The faculty wished to 1) foster the realization among their ROTC student-instructors that there is no "approved solution" in history with regard either to its understanding or its teaching; 2) broaden the scope of military history, usually thought by soldiers to mean the history of military operations, so as to create an awareness of the interplay among military, political, social, economic and other factors in history; 3) relate military history to the main currents of American history, so that one becomes an integral



part of the other. The faculty proposed to attain these ends generally by emphasizing extensive reading on the part of the students and by using provocative teaching in the classroom.

The faculty members also desired to have their students appreciate the nature of total and limited war in history, the diplomatic causes and results of warfare, civil-military relations in peace and war, the development of American military institutions, the roles of seapower and airpower, relations with allies and neutrals, domestic politics and military policy in peace and war, strategy and operations and the principles of war, the influence of leadership, and weapons, tactics, organization and logistics. The faculty proposed to focus student attention on these matters as they appeared throughout the course of American history.

Having thus determined the course objective and the recurring themes, and having thereby established the goals, the faculty set about to relate the substantive matter of the course to those goals. Recognizing that the time for the course did not permit complete coverage of the material, the faculty first divided the subject matter into seven major topics: introduction to the theory and principles of war; the American Revolution; the period 1783-1860; the Civil War; the Spanish-American War and World War I; World War II; Post-World War II and Korea. The faculty then assigned to each topic a number of classroom periods. For example, the topic of the American Revolution was to be treated in three classroom lessons.

Before organizing the three classroom lessons of the American Revolution, the faculty themselves discussed how the topic might be organized with reference to the course objective and themes. In other words, how was the topic related to the course? How would the faculty define for itself the contribution it wished the topic to make to the course? The members decided that their major purpose in teaching the American Revolution would be to show how the basic military policy and the military heritage of the United States were established.

With this objective fixed, the faculty determined the major areas of study to be explored. Some of these were the interaction of military and political events during the American Revolution; the limited nature of the war; the effect of geography and sea-



power on strategy; the impact of partisan warfare and military democratization on 18th century warfare; organizational problems of the war.

The result of these two steps—defining the topic contribution and stating the areas of study emphasis—gave the faculty a clear view of the meaning and relevance of the substantive matter of the topic in relation to student needs.

The next pertinent question concerned the method of organizing the substantive matter of the topic, again in relation to the stated objectives. Would it be best to present the material in chronological order? by theaters of operation? topically? or by means of a combination of these approaches? The advantages of each alternative plan were carefully considered. Finally, the faculty decided that the material could most appropriately be organized by the topical approach. The advantages were explicitly stated: the chosen plan deviated from the textbook and therefore provided student motivation for additional reading; it offered a better opportunity for illuminating the major areas of study.

Not until these matters had been threshed out did the faculty take up the selection of subject matter for three classroom periods or lessons. The intent was to make certain that important aspects of the American Revolution were not inadvertently omitted from the course—subjects like privateering, for example, that instead of illuminating a course theme might prove to be a significant exception.

With this settled, the faculty set about to organize each lesson or classroom period within the topic. Putting subject matter aside for the moment, the faculty discussed the proper objective of the first classroom lesson. How was the subject matter related to the topic objective? The faculty decided that it wished the first lesson to contribute to an understanding of the topic by making clear the strengths and the weaknesses of the military systems of the contestants.

The faculty then returned to the subject matter. The members had decided that the content of the first lesson should be a consideration of the background, causes and outbreak of the revolution, with emphasis on the political and ideological nature of the struggle. In order to facilitate student understanding of

this material, the faculty went one step further. It reached agreement on the main teaching points: for example, the British colonial system after the Seven Years War and the position of the thirteen colonies in the empire; colonial administration and government; forces in America for unity and disunity; the British military system and view of the war; the colonial military system and view of the war.

This provided an outline of the subject matter for the purpose of instruction. Knowledge of the subject was always an implicit assumption in the faculty discussions. The function of the main teaching points was to clarify the reasons for presenting certain material in a certain way or, perhaps better stated, within a certain context. Thus each classroom lesson was an integral part of a topic, and each topic contributed to the course.

The second lesson on the American Revolution, for example, had as its objective a view of the manner in which the revolutionary war was fought and the main reasons why. The coverage was the war itself, the principal factors and problems affecting its conduct. The main teaching points to be considered were geography and the theater of operations, seapower and the lines of communication, British and American strategy, military policy and its effect on strategy, and the role of foreign aid.

The objective of the third lesson was to show the weapons, tactics and leadership of the war. Coverage was to be obtained by a case study of two battles, to be followed at the conclusion of the period by a summary of the results of the Revolution. The main teaching points were the relationship of weapons and tactics; the battle of the Cowpens, to emphasize the use of militia, leadership and the principles of war; Yorktown, to stress seapower and coalition warfare and a concluding summary.

Not yet satisfied with its efforts, the faculty drew up for each lesson a list of stimulating questions or controversial issues related to the teaching points. These were designed to promote student discussion and to illustrate what one member called the "marvelous plasticity of history." Examples: Could the British have won the war? How was the Revolutionary War a limited war, the first modern war, a total war, a civil war, a world war, a war of conquest? Was Yorktown a French or an American victory? Consideration of any of these typical questions leads the student naturally into a discussion of the broader aspects

of the war and therefore broadens not only his conception but his knowledge of American military history.

Reducing to a cold report the deliberations of the faculty members during four and a half days of often hot argument in no way does justice to the interchange and interplay of ideas that occurred. The course has hammered out by discussion. Since the faculty members already possessed knowledge of the substantive matter, the discussion turned on securing agreement on the significance and relevance of the material to be brought to the attention of the student.

Two main elements accounted for the success of the discussion. First, the faculty members were convinced of the value of the process, and their obvious interest in formulating clear and valid concepts led them into enthusiastic consideration of many matters related to the study of history. Second, the chairman, Colonel Dupuy, accepted and administered with decisive capability the responsibility of preventing the discussion from proceeding aimlessly down byways to inconclusive or unrelated ends.

Obviously, all the work was not done around the discussion table in four and a half days. Before meeting on the Ohio State University campus, the faculty members had been in correspondence with each other; they had held a preliminary one-day conference several months earlier. They had already agreed to organize the course around seven topics, and they had decided on the number of classroom lessons for each topic. Each faculty member had considered how a particular topic and the lessons devoted to it might be organized. When they came together in August, therefore, they had preliminary organizational plans. These were modified, sometimes rather drastically, as a result of the discussion.

Always the faculty insisted on distinguishing between organizing the substantive matter into periods or phases and organizing it into teaching or teachable units. And always the tests of significance and relevance were applied in order to make the subject matter of history more than a jumble of events occurring in chronological sequence. The importance of the Spanish-American War, for example, was established for the course by relating it to America's increasing involvement in the affairs of Europe and Asia and the basic military reorganization during America's rise to world power.

The concrete results of the faculty's discussion were embodied in written outlines. An outline of each topic organization was drawn with an explicit statement of its contribution to the course, an explicit listing of the major areas of study, an explicit consideration of the alternative methods of organization (including the advantages and disadvantages of each—chronological, topical, etc.), the breakdown of material into lessons and a list of readings. Each lesson plan of the topic was similarly exposed, the objective of the lesson being explicitly stated, the subject matter to be covered in the lesson explicitly disclosed, the main teaching points explicitly noted, stimulating questions and controversial issues to stir student discussion carefully listed.

The written outlines, in the final form agreed upon by the faculty, were distributed to each instructor for him to use as a guide in his teaching. The result was the creation of a course syllabus. But its real value to the instructor was not in how it divided the subject into indigestible lumps of matter; it was rather to remind him of his constant problem of drawing meaning and relevance from the material at his command.

If a suspicion of regimentation has been aroused, it is appropriate to recall that in the final analysis each teacher performs his work according to his personal interests and capacities. This was the case at Ohio State. The value of the faculty discussion lay as much in bringing the members into general agreement on the broad outlines of the course as in uncovering fresh points of view. There was no "approved solution."

Though a good portion of the instruction was presented through lectures by faculty members and special guests,<sup>6</sup> the essential teaching consisted in having the students adopt the same procedure the faculty had followed in organizing the course. The student body was divided into five committees, each of 27 men, with two faculty members, one military and one civilian, assigned to each committee as co-chairmen. Each committee was further subdivided into student panels, and each panel was assigned one of the seven major topics in the course. The panel was responsible as a group for deciding how its particular topic might best

<sup>6</sup> Dr. Bernard Brodie of the Rand Corporation, Dr. W. F. Craven of Princeton, Dr. K. R. Greenfield, the Army's Chief Historian, Dr. E. L. Katzenbach of Harvard, Prof. W. B. Leach of Harvard, and Dr. Meno Lovenstein of The Ohio State University were the guest lecturers.

be organized in the designated number of lessons for presentation in the ROTC course. Not only the topic but each classroom lesson was organized into an explicit plan. At stated intervals, the panels presented the results of their study and deliberations to the committee as a whole. The committee then discussed the proposed plans of organization with the idea of refining or revising the teaching concepts.

Since it is impossible to organize material without a knowledge of that material, the panels were required to do extensive reading. And since the concept of a standard or approved solution was inimical to the purpose of the course, the committee was encouraged to attack the presentation. Again, knowledge of the substantive matter of military history was necessary. Further motivation for reading and discussion was provided not only by quizzes throughout the course but also by the fact that each student had a direct interest in the results—he himself would be teaching ROTC students during the approaching school year.

The method of instruction was to let the panels grope their way toward solutions and allow the committee to challenge the validity of those solutions. In the process, the students became aware of the possibility of teaching history in a variety of ways. The faculty provided guidance, established limits both for length of discussion and for scope of subject matter, stimulated the further acquisition of knowledge and indicated the variety of avenues that lead to valid interpretations of that knowledge.

An indication of the success of the instruction was glimpsed rather early in the course. Most of the students had arrived at Columbus with quite a narrow view of the scope of military history. Within the first few days of the course, panels tended to present topic and lesson organizations that concentrated on the political and diplomatic aspects of the subject matter and rather cavalierly dismissed the purely military aspects. The faculty then guided committee discussion on the proper limits and the proper material of military history; it also indicated how political and other aspects could be treated from within the boundaries of military history.

How well the Ohio State University Military History Course aided the ROTC program cannot of course be presently judged. But if the student enthusiasm manifested at Columbus is translated into a comparable effort in colleges throughout the nation,



the effect must become noticeable. To the extent alone that 135 officers attending the course have learned that the field of military history extends beyond the field of battle, the Army has already benefited.

The fundamental pedagogical belief of the faculty was that the function of the teacher is to impart knowledge and wisdom to his students. But the faculty members were aware that on the basis that wisdom is impossible without knowledge, many teachers have too often assumed that wisdom inevitably follows the acquisition of knowledge. How to stir the student into taking the second step of deriving wisdom from knowledge is the most difficult as well as the most rewarding task of the teacher.

Since the student is usually preoccupied with acquiring knowledge, the substantive matter of the course, the instructor must stimulate or prod him into interpreting his acquired knowledge. The essential elements of the intellectual game have thus entered into the teaching process—the interplay of ideas between instructor and student. To omit the game not only eliminates much of the joy of teaching but also fails to provide the exercise that best enables the student to gain the wisdom associated with knowledge.

To make certain of providing the conditions not only of intellectual play but also of a flourishing and instructive game requires fundamentally a thorough understanding on the part of the instructor of what he proposes to do with the substantive matter he possesses. To gain such understanding necessitates a clear appreciation on his part of how the subject matter contributes toward increasing the maturity of his students.

The faculty process of self-instruction not only defined the objectives of the Ohio State University Military History Course in relation to its own specific needs; the process also illuminated the underlying conceptions of any sound course in American military history.

It is suggested that the process worked out and applied in this case has value for faculties of history elsewhere. Faculties acting as groups—and particularly those members teaching broad survey courses—might with profit apply similar tests of self-examination and self-evaluation, not only to themselves but to their courses, with respect to clarifying meaning and relevance as related to the needs of their students.



## ENGLISH STUDIES FOR AMERICANS IN BRITISH UNIVERSITIES

ALLARDYCE NICOLL

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, BIRMINGHAM UNIVERSITY

THE flow of students across the Atlantic is now a steady one, and happily the stream is westwards as well as east. During the war much thought was given, both in Washington and in London, to means whereby student interchange, especially at advanced levels, might be further promoted; and to a certain extent at least those who at that time gave their minds to this problem may today reasonably take credit for what has been happening in the academic world during the past dozen years.

English students visiting the States go there, of course, for the pursuit of studies in many different fields. But among American students who elect to carry on advanced studies in England, a large proportion is particularly interested in English literature.

*Both Ways Across the Atlantic*—Everyone knows and freely acknowledges the debt which is owed to the many and highly distinguished American scholars who have contributed and are contributing so much to our knowledge and appreciation of England's poets and prose-writers, from the times of Beowulf down to modern days. Sufficient testimony of that rests in the numbers of young English scholars who yearly visit the United States, not merely to settle down for a spell of work amid the riches of the Huntington and Folger libraries, but more significantly, and for themselves more importantly, to imbibe wisdom from among the scores of outstanding experts in this subject spread across the American continent.

At the same time, for the young American student interested in English literature there is clearly a peculiar virtue in pursuing his studies for a space in England. In that country life may have changed rapidly during the past few decades, so that even Galsworthy's world appears a trifle remote, and the English scene, so richly celebrated in verse and prose, may have become transformed by "ribbon" development and the ubiquitous

NOTE: Professor Nicoll is also director of the Shakespeare Institute at Stratford-upon-Avon, Warwickshire.

gasoline pump; yet sufficient remains, particularly in the more rural districts, to provide an intimate background for an understanding of the country's literature.

Even the sight of an English robin, so small, so perky, so obviously prepared to be friendly, can provide a new flavor for "the robin redbreast and the wren"; some funereal brasses in a country church can give one a fresh insight into what Shakespeare meant by his "brass eternal."

*Which University?*—It is of course desirable (and often by regulation essential) that such American student visitors should be attached to one or another of England's various institutions of learning: and precisely here enters in a serious problem. For many persons in the United States "an English university" means either Oxford or Cambridge; perhaps, on prompting, most would admit London to the list, and some others might think of the ancient Scottish foundations at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and St. Andrews; but even so, Oxford and Cambridge would remain dominant in the mind.

Although it is right that this should be so—for these two universities, hallowed by time, have a position unique in the English educational system—it would be wise for American students intending to visit England somewhat to enlarge their field of vision. Oxford and Cambridge can accommodate only so many; London can provide for a certain number; but what needs to be fully realized is that the resources of the English universities, particularly in the area of English literature, extend far beyond these three.

The academic study of English literature, it should be remembered, is a comparatively recent development, and in this development the so-called provincial\* universities have played and are still playing, a vital role.

All these provincial universities are of modern foundation, but in the academic world tradition does not rest entirely within the walls of a particular institution, and whether an individual university was established last year, a hundred years ago or centuries past, inevitably it assumes with its chancellor's gown part of the general tradition which has been passed down from scholarly generation to generation.

\* So-called because they are in the provinces; by no means a derogatory term.

In the same way, when a new subject, such as English literature was not so very long ago, is introduced into the curriculum, the skills acquired in the study of other subjects easily can be applied to the novel subject-matter.

*Provincial Universities' Contribution*—When we think of the major contributions made during the past forty years to the study of English literature it is perhaps as much to the provincial universities as to Oxford and Cambridge that our thoughts turn. And today the tradition is being well maintained. Although necessarily every English Department strives to spread its interest over the whole field, almost every one has its own speciality, usually encouraged by its professor-in-charge, wherein special facilities are offered for advanced research.

Sometimes it is thought that a vast chasm yawns between the Oxford-Cambridge tutorial system and the system of lectures practised elsewhere; but nowadays nearly all English departments are based on, or make very considerable use of, the older tutorial method, and the trend in this direction is strengthening rather than declining. The approach therefore is fundamentally the same.

Sometimes too the opinion is expressed that in the majority of provincial universities the emphasis is all upon science and especially upon applied science.

The truth is that in every one of these universities anxious thought is continually being given to the encouragement of arts subjects, and frequently special efforts are made to promote particular developments likely to stimulate humanistic studies.

*Special Interests*—Here perhaps I may use as an example the establishment in 1951 by my own university, Birmingham, of its Shakespeare Institute at Stratford-upon-Avon—a postgraduate research center concerned with the investigation of life and literature from 1500 to 1640, offering unique facilities and experimenting in research methods not employed elsewhere.

When we look around other universities in England, Scotland and Wales, it becomes immediately clear that there is a tendency in many English departments to put particular stress on Shakespeare and the Elizabethans. Professor Peter Alexander (Glasgow), Professor G. I. Duthie (Aberdeen), Professor Wilson Knight (Leeds), Professor Clifford Leech (Durham), Professor L. C. Knights (Bristol) and Professor Kenneth Muir (Liverpool)

come at once to mind as critic-scholars who have made important contributions to this field.

But that does not by any means imply that the specialization is confined to merely one area of investigation: the interests spread far beyond the Elizabethan, Jacobean and Caroline. Professor F. T. Prince (Southampton) is expert in Milton, Professor John Butt (King's College, University of Durham) in Pope, Professor V. de Sola Pinto (Nottingham) both in Restoration writers and in Byron, Professor Gwyn Jones (Aberystwyth) both in eighteenth-century authors and in Welsh literature.

*Language Studies a Specialty*—Language studies have flourished in this country perhaps more than they have in the United States, and for those who propose to apply themselves to this subject there is ample choice, alike in the straightforward investigation of Old and Middle English language and literature, and in such particular linguistic enquiries as the dialect surveys directed by Professor Orton at Leeds.

Every mature scholar who looks back on his apprentice career must acknowledge that he owed more to the personal direction of an expert (of necessity an enthusiast) than to the particular institution in which he was registered; and for those American students who apply their attention to the British universities as a whole, the choice of such expert direction is wide indeed. The examples cited here are no more than an indication of some among the many opportunities offered.

If American students who have chosen the areas of investigation which they wish to pursue take into consideration what is offered to them by these provincial universities, they may well discover a peculiar advantage accruing from registration there. In general, they will find special encouragement given to post-graduate researchers and professors who are anxious to give personal assistance to younger scholars working within their own fields of interest.

Obviously, for the provincial universities themselves there is considerable gain in having American students attached to their departments, and for the students there is likely to be a gain in their association with those academic institutions which, after all, care for the needs of the vast majority of native students in

that country. If all Americans go to Oxford and Cambridge and London, there is an unquestioned loss on both sides, not only nationally but for individuals as well.

We may freely confess that a peculiar attraction is to be found in the older colleges and that London is a powerful magnet; but the provincial universities, while inheriting much of the ancient academic tradition, are adapting that tradition to modern conditions, and although Birmingham, Manchester and Liverpool as cities may not have so much to offer as the metropolis, nevertheless they provide certain opportunities for intimate study which London, precisely because it is a metropolis, cannot furnish.

One may well hope that the increasing numbers of American students coming to work in England will not think merely of the two or three familiarly recognized centers, will not feel distress if they cannot find places at these, but will survey the entire larger academic area and, making choice of such institutions as seem to offer them the best facilities for the pursuit of their chosen themes, will take pride in having pursued their researches in the colleges to which a De Selincourt, a Raleigh, a Grierson, a Moore Smith or a Saintsbury brought high distinction.

When Mr. John Case first invited me to meet with the Board of Trustees, I told him I did not wish to leave my position at Stanford State College, a school of 1,000 students which I had served as president for twelve happy years. Mr. Case is a very persuasive gentleman, as well as a devoted friend of the American University of Berlin. But even Mr. Case, with all his charm and skill, could not match the attraction of the University itself. The great contribution of this University to the youth of the West had, the prestige you enjoy among your graduates, the great opportunity you have for developing good will and understanding, and the future you have as a center of culture and civilization of the Western intellect are sufficient to challenge any man with adventure and energy. I know when Mr. Case and I visited you in January, we were overcome with your hospitality, your warm welcome and the natural beauty of your country. I now look back with gladness to the time when we met, and I know the University's important address at 1, John Case, Stanford

## MEN TO MATCH MY MOUNTAINS

J. PAUL LEONARD

PRESIDENT, AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

TODAY as I become the fifth president of the American University of Beirut, I wish to pay tribute to the four illustrious presidents who have preceded me: Rev. Daniel Bliss, the prime mover in the founding of this University; his son, Dr. Howard Bliss, who with great courage and power steered the young University through very difficult years; Dr. Bayard Dodge, the third president, who reorganized the curriculum of the University, greatly improved its financial base and led it into a position of power and prestige in the Near East; and Dr. Stephen Penrose, whose illustrious beginning was cut short by his untimely death. And finally, I also should like to pay my respects to Dr. Costi Zurayk who has filled with distinction the post left vacant by Stephen Penrose. During this period, Dr. Zurayk has won the admiration of his colleagues, the affection of the students and the gratitude of the Board of Trustees. I am happy to pause in these exercises to pay special tribute to the only two of this group who are now living and who are with us today—President Emeritus Bayard Dodge and Acting President Costi Zurayk.

When Mr. John Case first invited me to meet with the Board of Trustees, I told him I did not wish to leave my position at San Francisco State College, a school of 9,000 students which I had served as president for twelve happy years. Mr. Case is a very persuasive gentleman, as well as a devoted friend of the American University of Beirut. But even Mr. Case, with all his charm and skill, could not match the attraction of the University itself. The great contribution of this University to the youth of the Near East, the prestige you enjoy among your graduates, the great opportunity you have for developing good will and understanding, and the future you have as a center of culture and emancipation of the human intellect are sufficient to challenge any man with adventure and energy. Then when Mrs. Leonard and I visited you in January, we were overcome with your hospitality, your warm welcome and the natural beauty of your country. As we flew back 10,000 miles to California, we said, "Here are

NOTE: Dr. Leonard's inaugural address of 1 July 1957 at Beirut, Lebanon.



people we can love; we can share their joys and sorrows; and on this hilltop in one of the most beautiful spots in the world, we can help to carry forward a great mission for educational enlightenment." These are the things that pulled us. We are grateful for the letters of welcome and good will we have received, and one of the things which touched my heart was the editorial in your student paper entitled, "To our President." Youth are the same the world over, and the important thing in life above all others is that we learn to understand and appreciate one another and thus live together in peace. Good will is at the heart of all government, the family, business and social relations.

I do not assume this position lightly, for it carries with it great responsibilities. As the American University of Beirut has served the past, so must we who are here find a new place of leadership in a rapidly changing world. The first task of a university is to keep itself alive, to feed the noble and blessed fires of the human intellect, to keep pace with the needs of its students and the societies it serves, to keep its faculty abreast of the problems that try men's souls. At an early date I shall discuss these problems in greater detail with the faculty, for there are many issues before us. So I accept this responsibility with humility, promising as I do that I will give to the faculty, students and this land of great possibilities my best endeavor of heart and mind. In turn I solicit from all of you patience and understanding, cooperation and loyalty. I shall need to learn much about your culture, your dreams and aspirations, and your problems. I will need much education in a land that is new to me, if I am to serve you well. Mrs. Leonard, who is a gracious and indispensable member of this team, and I will want to know all of you personally as soon as we can. Montaigne expressed my feelings today in his short sentence, "One may be humble out of pride." We are proud to be here.

The Near East has given much to the world already. The great monotheistic religions sprang from this land; so did the domestic animals we all use for flesh and milk, the forced draft furnace we adapted to smelt our ores, the wheel on a rotating shaft and the written word. These came from you and have greatly affected both East and West. Middle Eastern civilization may thus be considered somewhat ancestral in many ways to both

East and West and can still contribute much to a world that is daily growing smaller.

Today as the American University of Beirut sits at the crossroads of the modern and ancient worlds, it is appropriate that it represent a fusion of both East and West, with a purpose to promote the mutual understanding and welfare of both.

Let us both transmit and create, for unless we transmit, there is no tie to the past; unless we create, there is no hope for the future. As we teach respect for past achievements, we will also teach that there is no limit to what our youth can achieve with their hands and minds. It is affinity of interest and understanding and confidence among human beings that hold them together.

We should know in every enterprise as clearly as possible what we propose to do and the means of doing it. An educated mind is the most valuable possession anyone can have, for with it he can gain emancipation. Furthermore it is the only thing he owns which cannot be taken away. He may lose his freedom, his jewels, his land, his money; but only death can steal his education. The job of any university is to teach youth to deal with ideas, and the function of the American University of Beirut is to spread a domain of wisdom over the great Arab world.

"Knowledge is power" is a platitude, but one we need to review occasionally. Knowledge gives us the ability to control ourselves and the affairs of life, to live without fear, to influence others, to compromise without loss of security, to think through our problems and to reach our ambitions. Those most capable will gain the greatest knowledge, and if they use it to solve the problems of life they will command the most leadership. But those with less ability must likewise gain sufficient knowledge to evaluate leadership, and to support it in the interest of the common good. Two men may approach a stream. One may swim across it and arrive on the other side. Another may survey the stream and build a bridge across it. The first man helps no one but himself; the second man builds a road which men and animals and vehicles can use and thus opens up new avenues of trade and culture. But unless the one who swam the stream can see the value of the bridge, will help pay for it, will share in its benefits, the leader has done little more than build a useless bridge. A modern society then needs many kinds of educated

people if it is to prosper—the engineer, the doctor, the political leader, the technician, the teacher of young children, the business man, the lawyer, the producer of foods and clothing and the clerk—and as each man is educated to a different level he increases his income, his self control, his own joy of living and his value to society. As these educated men are multiplied, the country prospers.

At the American University of Beirut we have three goals: first, to educate the leaders for medicine and health, engineering, agriculture, government service, teaching, business and industry; second, to serve the people of this land with research and professional advice; and third, to develop men and women who will be good citizens of their country and of a free world. I have time to comment on only the first and third of these goals.

Education is of little value if it leads only to contemplation. The engineer in the illustration I just used *built* a bridge. He might only have thought about it, wished for it, said how helpful a bridge would be and then jumped in and swum the stream like the first man. But like a truly educated man, he put his knowledge to work. Intelligent action requires three things. The first is ability. A man must have the "know how" to get things done. He must know how to build a bridge, to cure a disease, to eliminate the source of an epidemic, to teach a child, to engage profitably in trade. This ability he gains through education. The second is the resources to do the job. The materials must be available to build, the drugs must be on hand, there must be objects to sell and there must be a market. Many of these can be created by energy and research. The third is a concern for getting the job done. A man must want to take an action. He needs to be ambitious to succeed, or have a desire to make a profit or have a concern for mankind. A doctor may know how to eliminate the cause of malaria and he may have the tools he needs to do it, but if he does not have the concern or if people do not desire to use his knowledge, then no good comes of it. I cannot stress too strongly the obligation for the educated man to be *concerned* for others, for his country, for social improvement. Unless a man develops this concern there is no good reason why society should be concerned about his education. Society makes possible opportunities for its youth to acquire an education so

that these youth in turn may help make their country a better place in which to live.

If a university then is to profit the people it serves, it must give youth both the knowledge and the concern for action. With these two things there is no limit to the values of professional education for the individual and for his country. Think for a moment what could happen to the entire Middle East if it had nuclear power, if all its fresh water were harnessed for crop production, if its exports of art and culture and crops were carried throughout the world and if the sources of disease were eliminated. These are not idle dreams; they are realities which education and action can bring. They are values which can be realized if the desire is strong enough. You need not depend upon others for most of them, for you can create them for yourselves. Our job at the American University of Beirut will be to teach youth how to improve their own society through professional competence. This goal we hope to achieve through our professional schools.

The other goal I want to discuss is that of citizenship. There is a growing desire throughout the world for personal liberty and national independence. Liberty and self-government are founded on education and individual self-discipline. The heart of American democracy is to be found in the belief that the people of a nation are able to make up their own minds about public affairs if they have access to the facts and if they are educated to understand them. This is the foremost task of education. The second principle is that all people have certain individual rights to be protected. This is the primary obligation of government. The third principle is that each man must be responsible for his own behavior. This is the individual maturity that comes from education, experience and social consciousness. These principles have been at the base of the government of my country.

If men would have liberty they must be educated to know what it means, how it can be secured and how it is to be used. But fundamental to all liberty is self-control and personal restraint from intemperate behavior, for no nation is stronger than the combination of the ideals, principles and behavior of its own individual citizens. Liberty is therefore everybody's business.

If we fail as individuals to guard our own rights, someone else will do it for us, and when he does it he will act in terms of his own interest. To this extent then each man is the guardian of his own liberty, but if he is wise he will know that his liberty depends on the liberty enjoyed by all others, for persecution is contagious. Liberty is therefore not a static condition, but a process of enlarging its benefits. We cannot see liberty; we cannot feel it; we cannot hold it in our hands; but when it exists men prosper and are happy, and when it is denied they wither and die.

Government therefore serves to draw the lines, make the rules, punish the offender and protect the rights and liberties of all. And where we ourselves constitute that government, we control its actions. No government at all means anarchy; complete government control means statism; the desirable goal is a government of the people, determined by individual citizens acting as a sovereign, mature people. No nation can really imitate another; each must create a government of its own, peculiar to its own needs and culture. This is a far cry from the ancient concept that every man was the emperor's slave.

The Arab world is an ascending power center, and we hope at the American University of Beirut to educate the potential leaders to learn to think through these problems of government so that they may help to build independent sovereign nations, based on constitutional order but free from any domination, exploiting their resources for the good of their people, and taking their place among the nations of the world to gain their desired ends by mutual agreement and negotiation. Only the people of the Middle East can solve the problems of the Arab world; no one else can do it; but national problems today cannot be solved without relation to the world of which we are all a part.

In working towards these ends the American University of Beirut will not engage in politics, neither internal nor external, nor in indoctrination, but will be free to teach youth to examine and evaluate all ideas. We will give to youth an anchor to the realities of life while they develop confidence and power and a vision of truth and justice. We will endeavor to enable them to discover that through cooperation and wise planning the great



cultural heritage and the resources of the Arab world can be used to produce peace and prosperity.

The making of good citizens is primarily the function of the liberal arts, for they carry the threads of civilization and culture. They portray the strivings of mankind, the philosophies by which man lives and the creative acts of human experience. The liberal arts are the heart of a great university. They also constitute the core fields of knowledge of the professional worker, for all applied knowledge stems from the theories and experimentation within their boundaries. We shall not only strive to give the liberal arts their proper setting within the University, but we shall hope to endow all our students with the influence they rightfully have on the mind and heart of an educated man.

The greatest tribute the people of the Arab world can pay the American University of Beirut is that you will give us your most promising youth to educate. The youth of any nation is its most valuable resource. If you trust your youth to us, you have given us a place in your history, and we shall in turn teach them to hold their heads high, to be proud of their cultural heritage, to be confident of their future and of their ability to realize their ambitions for a better life. We shall teach them how to face life squarely as free men, how to solve their problems, how to cure their sick, how to farm their lands, how to build their dams and bridges, how to be beholden to no man and how to search for truth. We shall try to give them faith in themselves, their families, their country, their future, faith in one another, faith in God, faith that through knowledge and courage and energy and skill they can conquer poverty, disease and slavery, and faith that they can build an orderly society where all men are free.

One thing we know—that when they are thus educated and when they set their minds and hearts and hands to the task, they can build nations of their own design. They may not be like those which others have built, but they will achieve the yearnings of their own hearts and will represent the achievement of their own visions. This is the utmost height to which man can rise—that he creates the kind of life he desires when his dreams are most clear and his motives most noble.

This University has thrown a great light across this famous and ancient land. If you students learn well your lessons, and if we



as faculty are true to our purposes, then the American University of Beirut will shine even further with a brightness that nothing can subdue. When all men work together for a good cause, the cause itself grows nobler.

And so with the cooperation of trustees, faculty, students, administration, parents and community leaders, the American University of Beirut will continue to be an ever-increasing source of knowledge and power for the education of youth, and through them a force in the destiny of the Middle East. We are partners in education for the good life.

Over a large office building in the State Capitol of California is a sentence engraved in stone which reads: "Give me men to match my mountains." As I look today at the beauty of your mountains, and as they remind me of the ones I know and love so well in California, this inscription comes to mind.

All nations need men who are straight and sturdy; men who are serene and secure; men who harbour the resources of civilization—men to match their mountains. This is our job—to develop men and women who match the grandeur of this land. In this pursuit let us engage in common cause together.

As a nation enlarges its educational opportunities, it also enlarges the pool from which it chooses the creative power and the leadership of the nation. It enlarges the capacities of all those who are privileged to share in its benefits and thereby enables them to contribute effectively to mankind's advancement. American experience has dramatically proven that the well-springs of greatness often reside in the minds and hearts of those who may not be classified as among the scholarly elite. It is with individuals whose contributions to society are measured by a narrowly restrictive system of higher education. While Europe was betting on the favored few, America was gambling on numbers. The laws of probability favored the American system. Today, at a time when the colleges and universities of the nation are facing a depletion of their enrollment in a little over a decade, it is a bold step for education to be compensating their troubles by seeking ways of extending the benefits of college education to those talented students whose families are in the lower-income brackets. But it has been the American ideal to strive to provide equal educational opportunities for all those who are qualified and who have the desire. It is toward the

## HONOR SCHOLARSHIPS NOT FEDERAL SCHOLARSHIPS

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AMERICA's industrial might and her cultural growth have their roots deeply planted in American education. It was this nation's determination, in the spirit of democracy, to break sharply with European tradition and embark upon a new adventure in higher education which gave American industry the power to rise far above that of Europe. Whereas European nations restricted the benefits of higher education to the scholarly few, America pressed vigorously forward to build colleges and universities that they might open wide the doors to all who are qualified. It is obvious that American industry, with its complex problems of organization and its intricate technology, could never have been created on the scale of magnitude which we know today were it not for this pioneering adventure in higher education.

As a nation enlarges its educational opportunities, it also enlarges the pool from which will emerge the creative power and the leadership of the nation. It enhances the capacities of all those who are privileged to share in its benefits and thereby enables them to contribute creatively to mankind's advancement. American experience has dramatically proven that the well-springs of greatness often reside in the minds and hearts of those who may not be classified as among the scholarly elite. It is such individuals whose contributions to society are truncated by a narrowly restrictive system of higher education. While Europe was betting on the favorites, America was gambling on numbers. The laws of probability favored the American system.

Today, at a time when the colleges and universities of the nation are facing a doubling of their enrolments in a little over a decade, it is a bold step for educators to be compounding their troubles by seeking ways of extending the benefits of college education to those talented students whose families are in the lower-income brackets. But it has been the American ideal to strive to provide equal educational opportunities for all those who are qualified and who have the desire. It is toward the

fulfilment of this ideal that educators and government officials are searching to find a way.

Currently there are several bills before Congress which would provide for national scholarships financed by the federal treasury, to be awarded to deserving students from low-income families. A bill, which is supported by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, would grant 10,000 four-year scholarships each year to needy and deserving students. This would build up to a total of 40,000 scholarships per year after four years. Grants are to be made to state governments on a population basis and the scholarship programs are to be administered by the states. A more generous bill provides for 100,000 scholarships the first year.

Such measures unquestionably would help to solve the problem of getting a larger number of the talented youth of the nation into the colleges. But to many thoughtful persons there are serious and very fundamental objections to such a plan of federally financed scholarships. Furthermore, there are quite satisfactory alternatives which would overcome most of the objections of federal scholarships, while providing an entirely adequate solution to the problem.

Student loan plans, whereby needy students can obtain assistance to finance their college education at modest interest rates, have been suggested and several such plans are now in successful operation. The Massachusetts *HELP* plan in which funds have been obtained from private contributions and commercial banks has been in operation for over a year and has loaned out over three quarters of a million dollars to needy students in a year's time. Repayment of loans is arranged so as not to burden the individual excessively after graduation. The value of a college education is so great that the amount of such a loan is usually trivial in comparison with the increase in lifetime income of the individual.

There is another possibility of providing financial assistance to needy students which to my knowledge has not previously been proposed. It is a plan which would enable the colleges and universities to build up out of their own resources a fund of sufficient magnitude to provide virtually all of the necessary financial assistance for needy students without drawing upon outside

sources or diverting funds from the educational purposes of the college. If extensively adopted it would largely eliminate the necessity of using corporate or individual gifts to create student loan funds and thus would make it possible to apply these funds to capital investment in buildings and facilities where they are seriously needed.

This plan will be referred to as the Honor Scholarship Plan. Before examining it let us consider briefly some of the objections to federally supported scholarships.

It is abundantly clear that financial aid to individuals by way of the federal treasury comes dearly. It comes dearly in two ways. First, the overhead costs when administered by Washington bureaucracy in cooperation with the state governments would unquestionably be high. It has been estimated that about one half of the tax dollar which goes into the national treasury ultimately finds its way to the end purpose. Certainly the administering of tests, the selection of recipients, the payment of scholarships, the follow-up, and all of the necessary relationships and promotional efforts involving the students, the secondary schools and the colleges would entail sizable and costly administrative organizations.

Financial aid by way of the national treasury comes dearly in another respect. It turns the eyes of the people, and in this case the nation's talented youth, toward Washington and the federal treasury as the means of solving our individual and collective problems. When a nation allows its individuals to dip into the national treasury to solve their individual problems, it is starting out on a habit-forming, contagious process which always finds justification for multiplying its evils. Somehow, somewhere, the government will get the money through taxes or by borrowing but this after all is a nonessential part of the problem to those who are seeking special privilege.

One might also seriously question the efficiency of utilization of the funds for the intended purpose. Under even the most conscientious administration of the plan, a substantial portion of the scholarships would undoubtedly go to individuals who somehow or another would have found a way of going to college had the plan never been instituted. I suspect that this would constitute a fairly large percentage of all of the scholarship

recipients. The net effect, insofar as this group of students is concerned, is to transfer their tuition expense from the family pocketbook to the national treasury. Although this would be a convenience to the family pocketbook, insofar as fulfilling the avowed purpose of the plan is concerned, this portion of the federal expenditure would be a dead loss.

Taking into consideration both the overhead costs and that portion of the scholarship expenditures which does not result in any net gain in talented students in the colleges, the overall efficiency of utilization of the money would be low indeed.

Furthermore any plan of national scholarships will inevitably dry up all of the scholarship grants from corporations. Already there has been a marked trend among companies to cancel their scholarship aid in anticipation of a federal scholarship plan. In fact such cancellations have largely been in protest of such a plan.

Not the least of the objections is the fact that a federal scholarship plan would increase the dependence of the colleges and universities upon the federal government. Along with financial assistance inevitably comes some measure of control. This is particularly hazardous in the privately endowed colleges, which have maintained their traditional free-enterprise independence of governmental support and control.

Let us return to the Honor Scholarship Plan. Currently over 257,000 scholarships are awarded annually to college and university students throughout the country, amounting to over 65 million dollars. These are outright grants with no obligation to repay; hence this amount is dissipated annually insofar as the colleges are concerned. Experience has shown that only a small percentage of the scholarship recipients repay the scholarship amounts to the college. Furthermore scholarship recipients on the average do not contribute any more to their alma mater after graduation than nonscholarship individuals.

Today scholarships are generally regarded by the recipients as earned rewards for their own superior achievements rather than as obligations to be repaid in kind. In other words, when a student leaves the college he seldom has any feeling of obligation for the benevolence which he has received. This is not necessarily a reflection on youth—it is merely a tradition which has been

built up over the years as an integral part of the scholarship system.

Let us now postulate a new kind of scholarship which we shall call an Honor Scholarship. An Honor Scholarship would be one in which the recipient would pledge to repay the scholarship assistance within a stipulated period of years after graduation, in order to make it possible for another student to receive the benefits of college education which he himself has received. By this means, the scholarship recipient would accept an obligation—an obligation to give to another individual in like measure as he has received.

Furthermore let us assume that, by mutual agreement among colleges and universities of the country, approximately two thirds of the scholarship aid now awarded annually is converted into Honor Scholarships. Approximately 42 million dollars each year would then be committed to this plan. Since the funds which formerly were dissipated year by year now build up cumulatively, within ten years there would be a scholarship fund of 400 million dollars (allowing shrinkage due to bad debts), and in twenty years 800 million dollars. Within thirty years, the plan would have an accumulated fund of over a billion dollars. The cumulative power of this arithmetical progression is tremendous as is evident from the fact that the total cost of higher education in all of the colleges and universities of the country during 1954 was only a little over three billion dollars. Since the average duration of a college loan is about four years, approximately one fourth of the total amount of the fund would be available each year.

One of the arguments advanced in support of federal scholarships is that this will stimulate increased interest on the part of talented youth in attending college. Many a talented young person does not go to college simply because he does not live in a college-oriented environment. Very few of his friends talk about going to college, his parents are interested only in a wage earner and he receives very little encouragement from any source; consequently he follows the path of least resistance.

Admittedly there is a large selling job to be done to encourage the talented high school students of the nation to consider the advantages of college education and this must also point out



clearly to the young people and their parents how they can finance college education even though the family income may be small. But whether the scholarships are financed by the federal treasury or by the honor scholarship plan will make very little difference in the end result.

It should be emphasized that the foregoing plan would not detract in any way from the operating funds of the colleges and universities, other than to add a small overhead expense to handle the bookkeeping. Its achievement is possible merely by a redefinition of the meaning of scholarship to provide aid, not to a single individual to be lost forever, but rather to make this financial assistance available to an endless succession of individuals. The Honor Scholarship Plan creates a revolving fund which continues to serve society indefinitely, whereas the scholarship as an outright grant is consumed each year. Certainly a revolving fund of 400 million dollars in ten years or 800 million dollars in 20 years can perform a vastly greater educational service to the youth of the nation than one of 40 million dollars which is dissipated annually.

This is a choice of alternatives. Either the colleges and universities will go along with the traditional concept of the scholarships as outright grants, dissipating the funds year by year, or by redefinition the funds can become cumulative with the power of serving a vastly greater educational function in our society. Experience with student loans has shown universally that the students honor this obligation and repay the amounts loaned. From my personal association with students over many years, it is my sincere belief that, given this picture of the obligation of scholarship money to provide assistance, not to a single individual but to an endless succession of individuals, the students will gladly accept their responsibilities with an honor and integrity quite different from the self-satisfied complacency with which scholarship recipients today often accept their grants.

Such a plan could be put into operation only if a reasonable number of the colleges and universities of the country take cooperative action. Today, colleges and universities compete with each other for the better students and scholarship aid is sometimes used as bait. Most scholarships however are awarded on the basis of combined merit and need. But students will

always shop around for the best bargain. In time of course the college with the honor scholarship plan may find itself in a superior position, since it would have larger funds for student assistance.

Since most of the college and university scholarship funds derive their income from endowment bequests, there is of course the question of legality of this interpretation of the word "scholarships." Endowment bequests as a rule do not specifically prohibit repayment of scholarship aid. They usually specify that the income from the endowment fund be used for "scholarships to help needy and deserving students." Whether or not an agreement between the college and the student, whereby the student would pledge to repay his scholarship assistance in order to provide a similar benefit to another student, would be a violation of such a bequest would have to be determined in the courts. Because of the tremendous potential of the plan, it would seem that a test case might certainly be justified. If repayments cannot be legally enforced, it may still be possible by moral persuasion to get general acceptance of the plan. Where there are living donors of scholarship funds or endowments, their wishes of course would prevail.

It might be argued that repayment of scholarship assistance would detract from the contributions which individuals make to their college or university alumni funds. I am inclined to believe that the opposite would be the case. An individual who forms a habit early of making a payment to his college is more likely to continue to be a substantial contributor over the years than one who has not formed this habit.

Admittedly, the Honor Scholarship Plan would encounter difficulties when applied to women students, particularly for those women students who get married shortly after graduation. For career women, the same general plan could apply as applies to men students. Perhaps it would be necessary in the case of women students to have only a moral obligation to repay, recognizing that married women might find it difficult to fulfill this obligation.

It is only recently that the concept of borrowing funds as a means of financing college education has gained widespread attention and has been looked upon as a practical, workable and

acceptable solution of the problem of financing higher education. If America is to achieve its ideal of extending the benefits of college education to qualified individuals from families in the lower-income brackets it is clearly evident that very substantial funds will be necessary over and above the present scholarship assistance.

The Honor Scholarship Plan fits into the total picture of college financing, while at the same time overcoming virtually all of the objections of federal scholarships. It is a self-sufficient plan whereby the colleges can provide a large portion of the financial assistance needed by students in distress, using the financial resources now available and without calling upon outside corporate or governmental aid. It would avoid the necessity of creating large-scale student loan plans, thus diverting funds which are seriously needed for capital investments in new educational facilities. It would utilize the scholarship funds to the highest degree of efficiency while at the same time inculcating in the youth of the nation wholesome, constructive and responsible attitudes. It gives the individual who has received the highest honor which society can bestow upon him—an education—the great human satisfaction of helping another to achieve this same distinction.

## CULTURE-AREA PROGRAMS FOR LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

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"**H**OW has visiting colleges over the past five years affected your own philosophy of education?" The question had reference to visits to about 35 liberal arts colleges, involving consultations with individual faculty members and administrative officers, with faculty and student committees and generally with faculties as a whole. The somewhat impulsive answer was: "The most vivid impression received was one of monotonous sameness of programs." Everywhere liberal arts colleges are imitating the large university instead of developing their potential for experimental approaches, instead of exploiting their own freedom, instead of seeking and exploring their unique function. The genius of the private liberal arts college lies not in its smallness but in its inherent right to be different, to seek out new paths, to pioneer. Hardly more than a dozen such colleges have had the initiative and the daring to do this.

The "culture-area" program suggests a direction into which the private college might move to enrich its program and at the same time to help meet its responsibility of service to America in its new role in world affairs. The type of culture-area program conceived of as possible within the framework of the private liberal arts college has little resemblance to the programs initiated during World War II by the armed services and continued even now by some of the large universities. In these programs area studies became the field of specialization, an end in themselves. In the liberal arts college the new offerings would be a rich adjunct to the general education program, designed to supplement the field of specialization rather than to replace it.

American business, industry and governmental agencies sorely need an *infiltration* of technicians and specialists who have an insight into cultures and social orders other than those of the Western tradition. In the sessions of the Association for Higher Education at Chicago in 1957 F. C. Ward of the University of Chicago made this significant and provocative statement:

Typically, American technicians have been trained in their specialty without having been made aware of those special characteristics of their own culture which render it hospitable to the exercise of the specialty in question. This is not the occasion for discussing the defects and powers of this mode of educating technicians for work in the United States. But its defects become obvious and damaging when American technicians enter cultures very different from their own and are forced to cope for the first time with the interdependence of specific techniques with social attitudes and habits, instead of taking the latter for granted, as they have been able to do at home.

Professor Ward goes on to point out that "a new kind of wheat (as McKim Marriott has shown in a north India study) means higher yields and income to the farmer, but, to his wife, less tasty bread, poorer thatch, and a less cohesive plaster for floors and walls." The decision "between one economic value and another" cannot be made purely on technological grounds, but must be made also on the basis of its cultural and sociological implications.

The specter of Asiatic and African nationalism looms large on the historical horizon. Not even the most provincial appraisal of the future can leave out of account the impact which these people with their new vision, their new hope, their new vigor will make upon a new world order. Yet our colleges go on offering programs overwhelmingly weighted with European and American history, Western philosophy and theology, English and American literature, and the French, German, Spanish, Latin and Greek languages. Occasionally, if someone conversant with the Russian language happens to be momentarily available, a halfhearted move in that direction is made.

What role can the private colleges play in this field of area studies? They could cooperate in apportioning among interested colleges the responsibility to develop area programs adaptable to their resources and consonant with their institutional objectives. If each of a reasonably large number of private colleges would develop an area program for a relatively small cultural unit, America would be assured of at least a sprinkling of graduates throughout the country who would have some understanding of a culture different from their own.

The church-relatedness of many private colleges might have

an important bearing upon the apportioning of such studies. Many of the private colleges were founded with the avowed purpose among others of training missionaries, teachers, physicians and technicians to go to foreign lands. Out of such purposes affinities have developed between certain foreign cultures and certain American colleges, affinities which could be advantageously exploited. The college with which the writer is associated, for example, has a long and rich tradition of training educators who for many decades have served in the schools, colleges, churches and hospitals of Korea. This would appear to be a natural area for this college to study. The same would be true of other colleges and other lands.

What are the practical aspects of such a program for the typical small private college? Of the approximately 120 semester hours of credit required for graduation, about forty hours are taken in the field of concentration and about twenty in closely related fields. Approximately half of the program is devoted to general education and to specific institutional requirements. The area program would not interfere with the field of concentration but would replace some of the traditional general education courses. For a group choosing to take this program could not Korean history replace European history; could not the Korean language replace French, German or Spanish; could not Oriental philosophy replace Western philosophy without losing the inherent values of general education?

Two staff members recruited from the area to be studied should satisfy the needs of such a program in the typical college, one oriented to the humanities and the other to sociological studies. If a third were possible he might be a person thoroughly familiar with the technological aspects of the culture area in question. The additional costs of thus enlarging the staff would not be exorbitant and would more than pay for itself in terms of the new life and vision added to the institution. Here would be a new force at hand to combat the provincialism of our colleges, public relations would be enhanced, students and financial support would be attracted.



## A TURNING POINT IN EDUCATION

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### I

THE launching of the first Russian satellite in October of 1957 was the signal for an unprecedented production of oratory, charges and countercharges, accusations and justifications, predictions and warnings, and a general spate of oral and written testimony ranging from the hysterical to the soothing. It was the signal also for a sudden stir of activity in the United States, official and unofficial, as the uneasy feeling began to permeate the American mind that all was not well. The conclusions one could reach from all this and the degree of alarm one felt depended very largely upon what publication he read or to whose voice he listened. One could be comforted or depressed as one turned from opinion to opinion, from progress report to progress report. But for the first time many of the essential facts about the status of Russian science and of Russian education generally became known to us as a people, not because they had been a closely guarded secret but rather because we had chosen to ignore or misinterpret them.

There is nothing new in the concept that each generation faces the most distressingly difficult time in the world's experience. Dr. I. I. Rabi, professor of physics at Columbia University and consultant to the President of the United States on scientific matters, sums up this concept succinctly and wittily when he says,

In every decade people seem to feel that they are living through the most difficult and trying time in the history of mankind, at least that has been my limited experience of almost four decades since I began to shave. There was the first world war when we changed the name of Hamburg Avenue to Liberty Avenue and vowed to hang the Kaiser. This war was a prelude to the roaring twenties, which was also the period of the lost generation of F. Scott Fitzgerald. The stock market crash of 1929 ended the roaring twenties and gave the lost generation something real to think about. We then come to the 1930's, the era of the New Deal and the frustrated generation. Those days of high thinking and flat

stomachs ended with the second world war. For five years we had no time for neuroses because we were fighting the darkest forces of evil ever to threaten the modern world.

The last decade since the end of the war has been in some respects one of the most remarkable of all. Instead of the predicted hard times and unemployment we have, I cannot say enjoyed, but rather bemoaned a period of prosperity unequalled in history. The political divisions within the country have hardly ever been so slight. We have had the opportunity to vote for fine men in each of the major parties whose platforms were almost indistinguishable to the unpracticed eye. Compared to the conditions of life in any other civilized country we have been living in paradise.

Yet we are told, and most of us believe, that we are living in a period of crisis unequalled in history. To be cheerful and proud of our accomplishment and optimistic of the future is almost akin to subversion. To be considered objective and realistic, one must view with alarm. We seem to be acquiring a complacency of despair. . . .<sup>1</sup>

In the present circumstances and as a nation we face many dangers in the months and years ahead, but perhaps the greatest dangers are those of losing our sense of perspective and of searching for short-term solutions to problems which have implications for the generations yet unborn. It may be that we are not yet sufficiently out of the state of shock engendered by the latest developments to be able to meditate soberly about what all this means, but we should try. We have been subjected with alarming suddenness to a series of realizations which have struck with almost devastating impact and to which we must now adjust ourselves. When I say *we*, I mean the American people generally, for there have been individuals among us who for a long time have been aware of the imminence or the presence of these developments. These individuals have tried to utter words of caution or warning. But they have been largely ignored or discredited, so that as a total people the happenings of the present day come to us almost as a revelation.

There are certainly at least four such realizations to which we must adjust if we are to approach the future with any real sense of the magnitude of our problems. Of the first three I can presume to speak only generally since they are not within my province of knowledge; the fourth is the real reason for my

<sup>1</sup> From an address by I. I. Rabi, *Science and the Humanities*, pp. 1 and 2.

remarks, since it relates most specifically to us as teachers and students. The four realizations are these:

1. We are aware suddenly that we have become witnesses to the opening of a new epoch in human discovery.
2. We are aware suddenly as a people that another political power ideologically opposed to us may be able to surpass us.
3. We are aware suddenly that we are committed, willingly or unwillingly, to a military and scientific race for survival.
4. We are aware suddenly that new directions for education in America are inevitable.

Each of these realizations could well be the subject of a whole address, but I shall have to touch upon them very briefly today in order to meet the limitations of time.

## II

*First: we are aware suddenly that we have become witnesses to the opening of a new epoch in human discovery.*

Dr. Harlow Shapley, the eminent astronomer, points out in an article in *The American Scholar* that we have now had four adjustments to make in our thinking while we have been acquiring new knowledge about the size of the universe. First the original concept of the earth-centered universe was supplanted by a second theory of a universe centered on the sun. Then, less than forty years ago, came the necessity for a fresh adjustment in man's thoughts about his cosmic importance. Through the development of new and more powerful telescopes he discovered what Shapley calls a "galactocentric universe." This is simply a high-sounding term which puts the earth and its life near the edge of one great galaxy in a universe of millions of galaxies. We can all feel ourselves shrink into insignificance as we think of our individual place in these millions of galaxies. Finally we are today faced by the arresting question requiring still another adjustment, perhaps the most difficult of all, the question which asks, "Are we alone?" Knowing that millions of planetary systems must exist, can we suppose that life is restricted merely to the earth? Of course we cannot, says Shapley. And the significance and implications of his answer leave the brain reeling.

But all this is in the realm of theory and well-documented evidence through scientific observation. Now we suddenly find ourselves with the ability, actual and potential, to *participate*

actively in the search for such an answer, to propel ourselves into outer space and to begin to probe by actual physical exploration some of the mysteries of the universe.

A little more than fifty years ago the Wright brothers opened what we then considered to be an amazing era. They lifted man off the surface of the earth with adequate controls and opened the way for him to fly through the atmosphere and even the stratosphere. How like a mere threshold this now appears when we look at what is open ahead of us! Granted that we are inured to the fact that the world changes and that one cannot go back to yesteryear, golden as it may appear in retrospect; but this is a change in our thinking so tremendous that it almost crushes us with what it portends. For generations we have been content merely to look and conjecture. Now we must face the reality of Shapley's question, "Are we alone?" and we must be prepared to find the proof of his answer and to deal with its consequences.

I wonder how many others like me, not forewarned and not scientifically oriented, had the same reaction as mine when I first heard the news of Sputnik I. It was a sense of shock, but shock which had nothing to do with Russian enterprise or Russian superiority or anything else Russian. It was rather the sudden awareness that the world to which I was accustomed, the pace of its progress, the dimensions of its outreach, the dreams and preoccupations of those who are now mature and those who are in early childhood—that all these were changed forever. It was an awareness too that there was something inexorable in these changes, that there was no turning away or turning back. To live in the world from now on, I thought, would require new skills, new adaptabilities, new dimensions of knowledge, new sciences, new languages and vocabularies—indeed a whole new outer and inner man. And what that man was to be was as yet beyond my comprehension. I could only feel, and my feeling was a mixture of fear and exhilaration.

Now that there has been even a little time to become acclimated to the prospect of such rapidly expanding human knowledge, it becomes increasingly apparent that the kind of outer or inner man who emerges in the future is still within our power to shape and influence. And it also becomes apparent that this new crisis is in many ways like the other more minor crises Dr.

Rabi described. Mankind will adjust to it just as it has adjusted to the others, and probably with even greater speed because of the necessity. And the adjustments and developments which pose the greatest problems and are the most truly fascinating in the long view are those of the inner man, for herein lies the hope of a future for this planet. Shall we be able to match the new dimensions of knowledge with correspondingly new dimensions of wisdom? The question is certainly not new, but it is more pertinent than ever.

### III

*Second: we are aware suddenly as a people that another political power ideologically opposed to us may be able to surpass us.*

We Americans have been nurtured in a tradition of superiority. We have always felt that we were best in whatever we chose to be. We have accepted without surprise and we have adhered steadily to the belief that we have the highest standard of living, the greatest industrial output, the finest educational system, the most inventive scientists, the toughest fighting men, and so on and on. There is undoubtedly truth in some of what we have believed, but we have made the mistake of forgetting that if one wishes to maintain superiority he must do so with an inner sense of humility as well as a knowledge of and a healthy respect for what others are also accomplishing. Because of this forgetfulness we have been inclined to belittle what the Russians were doing, even though the proofs of their efforts were easy enough to discern. As a people we have simply refused to accept the possibility that with the constricting and conforming kind of political system they espouse, the Russians could come even close to matching us. We have been especially confident of our ability to stay ahead because of the comparative newness of the USSR and because it had an essentially agrarian economy which it was necessary to transform into an industrial system.

Now we have suddenly seen the errors in our thinking. We have had brought to our attention dramatically what can happen in a dictatorship when a people is either forced into or accepts willingly a singleness of purpose and a dedication to the progress of the state. We see now that the Russians are on their way to matching the material production which we have but with a



striking difference. While we perform our work with freedom of action and with an almost casual air, they go about theirs if not fanatically, then certainly with a seriousness and a sense of direction that do not allow distractions or postponements to interfere. We see on an even greater scale the kind of efficiency of which Nazi Germany boasted and with which it managed to shake the foundations of the world.

Yet it is important to remember, as we search for perspective, that the Soviet Union in order to reach its present point of development has had to make concessions to its people which may in time change the very pattern and basis of their ideology. A recent pamphlet of the American Committee for Liberation points this out clearly, and I should like to cite a portion of it:

The Soviet regime through the years has raised literacy and thereby aroused the thirst for more freedom of inquiry and expression. Soviet industrialization brought into being vast numbers of skilled workers, engineers, technicians, scientists—and these were bound in time to claim a better life and more dignified social status. The huge Soviet armed forces gradually developed vested interests, with officers concerned for their special status, privileges and prestige.

Thus, in one area after another, Soviet society became more multiple, more differentiated. The result is a rudimentary growth of individualism with which the dictatorship, however reluctantly, must try to come to terms.

Today it is no longer easy to mobilize the energies of Soviet citizens by simple, sloganized appeals to ideology. Fanatic ideologies have a way of burning themselves out. The Soviet ideology, however, has been so abused as a crass tool of power that it has lost its earlier idealistic mystique. Soviet youth and workers, for example, are no longer ready to work overtime and as 'volunteers' on jobs just for the glory of the revolution. Soviet students are openly cynical about Marxist-Leninist clichés. Increasingly, it would seem, people insist on personal incentives, rewards and even rights.

The dictatorship today must deal with a different population. An essentially agrarian country has changed in a generation into a country with an urban population of some 80 million. The Soviet townsman, despite the planned isolation from the outside world, has a certain sophistication, certainly as compared with yesterday's peasant. He knows about Hemingway and TV, about jazz and vacuum cleaners and the Olympic Games. He yearns for travel abroad. He



is still in awe of the state, but a host of new impressions urges him on toward the new, the untried.

To curb these new appetites for living would require the full terror of the Stalinist era. But it is unlikely that Khrushchev & Company will dare to reimpose unlimited terror, or that they would succeed if they tried . . . . Once self-expression has been cautiously allowed, it is difficult to restore the climate of all-encompassing fear. It is quite possible, therefore, that Soviet terror has met the law of diminishing returns.

The Kremlin in the next years may possibly wish to become, by easy stages, a more enlightened—and hence more efficient—dictatorship. This, of course, not because the ruling oligarchs have had a change of heart but because they are compelled to release more popular creative energy in order to operate a modern technological economy.

The question, however, is whether a totalitarian dictatorship is really capable of harnessing free energies to its service. A little liberty, far from reconciling people to tyranny, emboldens them to demand more and yet more. The dictatorship, in stimulating individual trends for its own purposes, may well be touching off processes it will be unable to control.

A rough contemporary analogy is provided by the current fate of colonial empires. Willingly or otherwise, imperial powers in this generation embarked on policies of concessions to their colonies. The hope was to fortify the colonial system by making it softer and more and more flexible. But their subjects invariably accepted the concessions as mere down payments on eventual liberation. All through history, pressures for a change of regime increased when things were getting better, but not getting better fast enough. Will the Khrushchev policy of limited concessions, similarly, prove to be too little and too late?<sup>2</sup>

The lesson to us is clear and obvious. Our hope does not lie in imitating the Soviet method. It lies rather in supplanting our present anemic dedication with a new passion to give the broadest encouragement to the individuality and creative power of the citizen, to instill in him a desire to work for the betterment of mankind generally and the enhancement of personal dignity. If this were to be the guide and motivation of our education, then unless the facts of history are completely wrong and unless human nature undergoes a thorough change,

<sup>2</sup> *A Fresh Look at Liberation*, pp. 7-8, November 1957, American Committee for Liberation.

my wager is that some day the Russian people could be eagerly imitating us.

#### IV

*Third: we are aware suddenly that we are committed, willingly or unwillingly, to a military and scientific race for survival.*

Our hope for a change in the Soviet political system of the future is *one* thing; our concern over the safety of the United States today is quite another. All we need do to recognize the seriousness of our present situation is to imagine what our reactions would have been had the British been the nation to launch the first satellite. Instead of uneasiness on our part there would have been pleasure, since we would have had no question about the British motives. We might have been disappointed not to be first, but it would not have been disappointment colored by mistrust. Every one of the long series of events marking the progress during the past eleven years of the Soviet Union as an international power has given us cause to be mistrustful and to realize that truly friendly relations are unlikely. Under such circumstances armed vigilance is essential. The present position of scientific leadership which the Russians have gained and to which we are for the first time fully alert makes it all the more necessary to look to our defenses.

There is no question that basic scientific research in America must be fostered and encouraged as never before. There is equally no question that we can ill afford to be second-best in the development of rocketry and missile research and the resultant exploration of outer space. For we must now face the incontrovertible fact that so long as we are confronted with superior achievements in these areas by a nation to whom we are ideologically opposed and in whom we place no trust, just so long must we strive to regain and thereafter to maintain our first-rank position in scientific research. This is an unpleasant and unpalatable truth having tremendous implications for us in terms of expenditure of money and energy. But it is the truth nonetheless, and we must learn to live with it.

Scientific equality or supremacy, however, if it is aimed merely toward military prowess is only part of the total picture. If all we can hope for is an ability to match the Russians in each

new venture into outer space as a military threat or with each new missile, then there is truly little chance for the survival of civilization except through a military stalemate. And when or if that day of stalemate should come, what shall we then have to offer the world which will differ from what the Russians offer? Labor-saving devices and sleek automobiles and mass entertainment and even higher material standards of living will not be enough, for all these will ultimately be within reach of the Soviet Union, and perhaps sooner than we suppose. We must be able to offer something unattainable by the Russians under their present political system, and we must prepare today for this offering of tomorrow. If we act now with wisdom and if we approach our education of youth with wisdom, we can offer to an eager world the enterprise, the freedom and the dignity of the individual in his mind and spirit. This is the kind of race in which we are already far ahead, and we must not be diverted by present events into relinquishing the lead. We must in fact increase steadily the distance between ourselves and the Soviet Union in the race to show the world how free men are created and nurtured.

## V

*Fourth: we are aware suddenly that new directions for education in America are inevitable.*

Each of the three realizations I have just discussed has presented indirect implications for education in America and I have tried to do no more than indicate them. It is time now to deal with the more specific implications confronting us.

*The first new and inevitable direction for American education is a stronger insistence than ever that regardless of their area of specialization students be given the broadest kind of backgrounds to prepare them for life itself as well as work.* Those elements which promote wisdom of the mind and serenity of the spirit must not be sacrificed because of the impelling needs of science. Nor should those elements of language, our own and those of other lands, be neglected lest we find ourselves communicating so poorly with the rest of the world that we are at a constant disadvantage.

We are all familiar by now with the tremendous emphasis

now being placed upon science and mathematics. The shock of the Sputniks has galvanized the people into a reappraisal of how our educational system measures up in the training of scientists and engineers. And inevitably the reappraisal is based upon comparison with education in the Soviet Union. President Eisenhower, in his Oklahoma speech on science and national security, made such a comparison. He said,

The Soviet Union now has—in the combined category of scientists and engineers—a greater number than the United States. And the Soviets are producing graduates in these fields at a much faster rate. Recent studies of the educational standards of the Soviet Union show that this gain in quantity can no longer be considered offset by lack of quality. This trend is disturbing. Indeed, according to my scientific advisers, this is for the American people the most critical problem of all.

Speaking specifically of the public elementary and secondary schools, the President went on to say,

I wish that every school board and every PTA would this week and this year make one single project their special order of business: To scrutinize your schools' curriculum standards to see whether they meet the stern demands of the era we are entering. As you do, remember that when a Russian graduates from high school he has had five years of physics, four years of chemistry, one year of astronomy, five years of biology, ten years of mathematics through trigonometry, and five years of a foreign language.

To solve the problem of developing more scientists, the President suggested "a system of nationwide testing of high school students, a system of incentives for high-aptitude students to pursue scientific or professional studies, a program to stimulate good-quality teaching of mathematics and science, provision of more laboratory facilities, and measures, including fellowships, to increase the output of qualified teachers."

No one could quarrel with the President's statement or the suggestions made, yet the disquieting element is the failure to emphasize equally the necessities for high quality teaching in fields *other* than the sciences and the encouragement of students to enter these fields also. If we are not careful, we shall find ourselves giving mere lip service to the need for broadly educated

men and women while we actually spend most of our money and energy in the science areas, not only because their needs are suddenly more critical than ever but because these areas are more tangible and measurable in terms of results. Personally I would be much happier with a program of action based upon the kind of statement made this month by Marion B. Folsom, Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, in which he said:

Our society is ever in greater need of broadly educated men who have the intellectual ability and the moral conviction to make those difficult and oftentimes unpopular policy decisions that determine the course of mankind's advance. Those qualities increasingly require a grasp of the scientific and technological aspects of our world, and they will ever require an understanding of the great moral, philosophical and historical truths of mankind. . . .

We have to educate professional scientists and engineers in such a way that they have a broad concept of the relationship between their technical interests and their responsibilities as citizens and human beings. The man of science, as other professional persons, must be educated to the great truth that no man or group of men lives or works alone on this earth.

It will be interesting to see whether Secretary Folsom's concern for the welfare of the whole of higher education will be reflected in the programs promulgated by the federal government.

Another implication for education of which we are suddenly aware is that of the necessity for swift changes in the financial status of teachers and of education generally. Once again we find ourselves face to face with a comparison to Soviet education. We spend on education in this country somewhere between two and one half to four per cent of the national income; the Russians spend seventeen per cent. The average annual salary for a college professor in the United States is \$5400; his Russian counterpart earns \$35,000 annually and more. Even beyond the purely monetary differences are those of status in the community. In Russia the teacher is considered to be at the high point in the social scale and he is treated accordingly; in America he is frequently the object of scorn and ridicule and the butt of rather bad jokes. A philosopher has said, "What is honored in a country is cultivated there." How much honor have we given the teacher? In our preoccupation with material gain

we have dealt cruel blows to those who are dedicated to teaching. In our insistence upon measuring a man according to the accumulation of his worldly goods, we have relegated the teacher to a low place on the social ladder. And yet we have done all this with uncomfortable feelings and with pangs of conscience. For in our hearts we have suspected it was wrong and dangerous. Today, as we look at world events and our immediate problems, we *know* it was wrong and we hope the danger can be averted.

*The second new and inevitable direction for education in America, therefore, is a massing of resources to undergird and strengthen the teaching process such as we have never before envisioned.* Doubling our present financial outlays is only a beginning, the kind of beginning that must be made without delay. It is not a question of whether or not this is an expense we can afford; the obvious fact now is that we cannot afford *not* to incur such an expense. We must now think through our educational problems in new and infinitely larger terms as well as greater values. And we must be certain that as we put more and more of our resources into the task, we are developing a proper proportion between what we spend on facilities and what we spend on the human equation. We must remind ourselves over and over that without teachers of the highest quality all our splendidly constructed facilities will have little impact upon the improvement of education. And so the process of teacher training must be reexamined and upgraded. Refresher courses must be instituted. This is already happening in the science and mathematics areas for high school teachers with the support of the National Science Foundation, but it is equally necessary for teachers in all fields. A combination of proper training and adequate incentives will make the teaching profession attractive enough to draw greater numbers of candidates than ever before, candidates among whom we should eventually be able to make judicious selection rather than accepting all regardless of merit. And along with these teachers of quality we must fill our classrooms with every student of ability and promise we can find. Never again must we allow today's tragic situation to be repeated, a situation in which only 53% of college-age students with an I.Q. of 120 or better actually go to college, a situation in which over 30% of the *top quarter* of our high school graduates do not



go on to college. The potential strength and leadership of our nation—our youth—must be sought out and developed to the fullest.

*A third inevitable direction for education is that of seeing to it that every citizen reaches maturity with a basic understanding of the scientific aspects of his world.* Just as we need everyone to be broadly and humanely educated, so do we need to be assured that such breadth of knowledge includes an awareness of the place of science and an ability to adjust oneself to living in the civilization of the future. In such a civilization every creature without a grasp of the rudiments of science is an *ignoramus*, dangerous to himself and his fellow men, unable to protect himself or assist in the protection of others, unable to comprehend the true characteristics of his life's daily requirements. The implications of this direction point specifically to our curricula in elementary and secondary schools and the degree to which we presently make certain that all students have such basic knowledge.

*The fourth and final direction for education, if it is to meet today's and tomorrow's needs, is toward the development of new understandings between the scientist and the non-scientist.* These must go far beyond our present efforts to offer a program of general education, for example, which all too frequently amounts to pouring some of one discipline and some of another into the students' minds in whatever doses and proportions we can agree upon, and then expecting a whole man to emerge, full-flowered in his wisdom. They must recognize first of all that the sciences and the humanities stem from different traditions, and wisdom is achieved only when these two traditions can be blended. Some of the tragic failures in world affairs from which we now suffer have come about because non-scientific people have made essential decisions in a scientific age. Yet we would be equally vulnerable were we to turn over world decisions to our specialists. We can no longer afford the dangerous luxury of two types of learning unable or unwilling to comprehend one another. The humanist must know the sciences; the scientist must know the humanities. As Dr. Rabi says, "Wisdom is by its nature an interdisciplinary quality and not the product of a collection of specialists. . . . The scientists

must learn to teach science in the spirit of wisdom, and in the light of the history of human thought and human effort, rather than as the geography of a universe uninhabited by mankind. . . . The non-scientific faculties must understand that if their teachings ignore the great scientific tradition and its accomplishments, however eloquent and elegant their words, they will lose meaning for this generation and be barren of fruit."

I should like to see the two segments of our faculty here at Antioch begin to take one another's courses occasionally and become better acquainted with one another not only as people but as scholars. Out of this could grow a mutual respect and understanding and a deeper and more meaningful program not only in general education but in the total experience of the student. Although imperfect and fumbling, this is at least one way of moving in this new and inevitable direction. We can find other ways if we search for them.

## VI

We are indeed at a turning point in education. With a new era of experience awaiting us we can turn boldly and resolutely, not in imitation of the Soviet Union or any other nation, but rather in courageous experimentation which can strengthen our belief in the free mind. We can turn our resources, our energies and our hearts toward a new conception of the place of education in the life of this republic. We can learn the lesson we should have learned long ago, that our real strength is in our minds, not in our material wealth. If we learn this lesson well and make it our common practice, we have nothing to fear in the long view. For the creation and development of free men in a free society is still the unique contribution of the Western world in which we are leaders. With assiduous and persevering attention to this task of educating youth in the broad attributes of humane and scientific knowledge we can still hold out to present and future generations the hope of peace and good will for all mankind.

## HOPE COLLEGE SUMMER SCHOOL IN VIENNA

PAUL G. FRIED

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AFTER several years of experimentation Hope College has evolved a European Summer School program which offers its students a unique opportunity to combine the most important aspects of foreign travel and study. While there is no single pattern for foreign study or student travel, most plans currently followed by institutions and individuals fall primarily into one of the following four categories:

This popular type of educational travel, sponsored by dozens of American universities, features group travel through a number of countries. Usually the group is accompanied by a competent professor who acts as guide and who lectures on the significance of the historical and cultural sites visited. Students on these tours have little opportunity to escape from the "home environment" represented by the group on the bus and seldom meet Europeans who are not directly involved in the tourist business.

There are many European universities where summer sessions for Americans are held. Most of the courses offered there, however, are geared to the needs of teachers rather than undergraduates and they are therefore difficult to fit into the average undergraduate degree program. A few American universities, such as Chicago, Temple and Washington, have set up language schools for summer students in cooperation with various European universities. Generally these programs are of interest only to language students and they are rarely combined with educational travel.

In its best type this kind of experience is probably illustrated by the Experiment in International Living (Community Ambassador Plan). There can be no doubt that participation in the experiment or similar plans is of considerable educational value. They do not however give the student an opportunity to earn specific course credits.

Travel as such is considered "educational" and every year thousands of American students "do" Europe, by car, bus,

bicycle or "thumb." They travel alone or in groups and are frequently interested mainly in covering the largest number of countries possible or in just "having a good time." While this type of travel may certainly help the student to develop independence in thought and action, it again fails to offer the opportunity to earn specific course credits and it does not provide for any kind of educational guidance.

The program of the Hope College Summer School in Vienna, described below, represents, I believe, an important innovation in the field of educational student travel because it integrates a carefully planned sightseeing program, study under European professors, extended residence in a European home and a period of independent travel into one inexpensive, college-sponsored program.

## I

### *The Study-Tour*

The object of the study-tour, which included France, Belgium, Holland, Germany and Austria, was to introduce the student to the European setting in general and to the beauties and landmarks of the areas visited, and most of all to bring him face to face with the new Europe which has emerged since the end of the Second World War.

While the program included sightseeing in places like Paris, Amsterdam and Heidelberg, and visits to the Louvre, the Rijksmuseum and the Rubens House in Antwerp, the real emphasis during the period of travel was on introducing the student to geographical areas and helping him to understand the major political, social, economic and military problems and issues in Europe today. This was achieved largely through a series of briefings, the first of which were given in Paris, at SHAPE headquarters, followed by a visit to UNESCO where the group was greeted by a Hope College alumnus (Dr. Zwemer). Lectures and discussions at the Office for European Economic Cooperation, at the College of Europe in Bruges, at the Noordeinde Palace and the Peace Palace in the Hague stressed the new trends toward European unification. An extensive tour through the Phillips factory in Eindhoven introduced students to European industrial methods and social problems, and briefings in the

Dutch parliament and the German Bundestag brought them face to face with current political issues.

There was, of course, also ample time for sightseeing, souvenir hunting and picture taking in places like Volendam, Rothenburg and along the Rhine. The study-tour, which began when the bus from Vienna met the group at the pier in Le Havre upon arrival, terminated with a brief introductory tour of Vienna. After that students were assigned to the individual rooms which were to be their homes during the six weeks to follow.

## II

### *Academic Program in Vienna*

The academic program of Hope College Summer School in Vienna was based on the utilization of faculty resources from three cooperating institutions: the University of Vienna, the Institute of European Studies and Hope College. This combination helped us to solve the basic problem of adapting and evaluating the offerings of a European university and at the same time enabled us to offer our students a choice of six different courses in which they could earn from two to eight hours' credit.

Classes were available in elementary, intermediate and advanced German, in German conversation, in music and in European history. Courses were taught by Austrian professors from the University of Vienna and by other European instructors specially appointed for the Hope College summer program. In each case, Hope College faculty served as "associate instructors," and helped in selecting texts, suggesting course outlines and determining final grades.

The following outline of specific arrangements made in each of these fields will indicate that the academic value of the courses offered in Vienna was equal to that of similar courses given on the campus here at Hope College. At the same time, every course included features unique to the European location.

1. *The German Program.* Students registered in one of the three basic courses were enrolled in the intensive language program of the University of Vienna where German classes met for three hours every morning. In addition a German tutor was appointed to the Hope College Summer School staff in Vienna,

whose main responsibility was to work with the eight students enrolled at the University. On the average, students spent from two to three hours every afternoon working with the tutor. The obvious advantage of living in a city where German is spoken by everyone need hardly be stressed. There is no better motivation for and aid in attaining oral fluency. Aside from the academic program in German, a one hour non-credit German conversation course was set up at the request of interested students.

2. *The Music Program.* The course in "Music Literature of the Classical and Romantic Period" was taught by Dr. Carl Nemeth, a prominent young Austrian music historian and conductor. In addition to attending regular lectures students took part in eight field trips. These included attendance at one symphony concert, one piano-violin recital and two operas, and visits to four places of music-historical interest: the Beethoven house in Heiligenstadt, the Imperial Music Instrument Collection, the Music Manuscript Collection of the National Library and the Vienna State Opera. In addition, private lessons in voice and piano were arranged for two students and reserved tickets for the Salzburg Music Festival were available to the whole group. The advantage of studying the music of the classical and romantic period in the city which was the home of Beethoven, Schubert, Haydn and Mozart is obvious.

3. *The History Program.* The course in the "History of Europe since 1918" was taught by Dr. Richard Sickinger, a brilliant young Austrian historian and former Fulbright scholar at Yale and in Washington, who currently serves as academic dean of the Institute of European Studies. Aside from regular class sessions, which were augmented by a number of guest lectures by prominent experts in various fields, the course program also included several all-day field trips as well as a number of shorter field trips in the city of Vienna, which served as illustrations for some of the material covered in Dr. Sickinger's lectures.

A feature which deserves particular attention is the term paper history students were required to prepare. Selection of the topic—within the period 1918–1957—was left to the student. The main requirement was that material for the paper was to be collected not from printed sources but through conversation with Austrians who could offer students first-hand information. Thus



a paper on the current policy of the Austrian People's Party was based on interviews with government officials, and a paper on youth activities necessitated visits to the city hall and conversation with members of the Catholic and Protestant youth organizations. This "oral research" had the advantage that it brought students into contact with a large number of native experts in different fields and gave them additional opportunities for practice in German.

### III

#### *Social Program in Vienna*

During their six weeks' residence in Vienna, students were housed in groups of two, three or four in private homes with Austrian families. They took their breakfast in their respective homes. The entire group had lunch in the modern dining rooms of the Institute of European Studies, where cooks provided a well balanced diet, adjusted to American standards: e.g. milk and iced tea were placed on each table and the cooks even made a valiant effort to surprise the group with "American apple pie." For their evening meals, students were given an ample weekly cash refund which enabled them to visit different restaurants of their choice, where they could experiment with Austrian dishes and practice their newly acquired vocabulary.

A series of social events was arranged for the entire group. Highlights of these included, among others, a visit to the Austrian Parliament and a reception by the President of the Austrian National Assembly, receptions given by the Hope group for the dean of the University of Vienna and the American Cultural Attaché, visits to the International Students Club and a farewell party at the Palais Auersberg. Most of the students also took a lively interest in contributing to the Sunday services of the English Protestant Chapel in Vienna.

These activities helped to mold the *esprit de corps* of the group. Of even greater importance in this respect was the work on two issues of the European edition of the *Hope College Anchor*, to which more than two thirds of the students contributed articles. The "family atmosphere" was further enhanced by the fact that faculty members joined the group for lunch and that stu-

dents could invite visiting friends to lunch or to the lounge of the Institute. All this contributed to the feeling that they were "at home" in Vienna.

#### IV

##### *Independent Travel Program*

At the conclusion of the six weeks' session in Vienna, students had ten days in which to travel independently to places of their own choice. A considerable number went to Switzerland and England, which had not been included in the earlier study-tour, several spent more time in Austria and Germany or in other places they had visited before. A number of students utilized the time to visit relatives or friends. Permitting students to plan their own program for the final days of their stay in Europe had the advantage that individuals could visit the places of greatest interest to them and select the group with which they wanted to travel. Having to make their own arrangements meant that they had to think for themselves and that they could develop greater confidence in their ability to use the language they had studied.

Since the cost of travel during this period was not included in the basic price of the program, students were not only able to select the places they wanted to see, but they were able to adjust plans according to their financial resources. By staying in Austrian homes in the Alps and in youth hostels, two young men spent only about 35 dollars during the ten days. During the same time, several young women traveling to Switzerland, England and Scotland spent well over 250 dollars each. All arrived safely and on time in Rotterdam for the boat trip home, insisting that this period of independent travel had really been the crowning experience of an exciting summer.

#### V

##### *Scope and Cost of Program*

In the summer of 1957 thirty students were enrolled in the Hope College Summer School in Vienna. Of these, 22 were Hope College undergraduates or graduates of the last two years and eight came from other institutions. The group, which sailed from Montreal on 10 June and returned to New York on 7

September, was accompanied by two members of the Hope College faculty.

The basic fee for the 1957 program was 645 dollars for transatlantic passage, study-tour and room and board during the six weeks' session in Vienna. Tuition, personal expenditures and cost of travel during the period of independent travel had to be added to this sum. The reported total expenditure ranged from 900 to over 1,300 dollars per student.

## VI

### *Evaluation of Program*

While it is possible to measure the results of the academic program in terms of grades, it is more difficult to assess the degree to which the total program contributes to the student's over-all development.

During the return trip I prepared a detailed questionnaire in which students were asked to comment on the various phases of their summer's experience and to make recommendations which could be useful for future planning. In the final section of the questionnaire I asked students in what respect the summer had seemed most profitable to them.

Comments prepared by the majority of the students indicate that they felt that the summer's experience had been of profound importance to them in many ways: in gaining insight into another culture, in bringing academic subjects to life, in learning to live on a budget, in learning to get along with other people, in realizing the important position of the United States in world affairs and in developing a feeling of self-confidence and independence. All felt that their participation in the Hope College Summer School in Vienna marked a real milestone in their lives.

The long-range influence that these students can have on the Hope College community is also of great importance. Their experiences, communicated to other students, should serve to stimulate interest in language study and in the whole field of international relations, history, geography and current events. The considerable increase in IRC membership this year may be related to this.

From my contacts with many people in Vienna, I can also

confidently state that the presence of our Hope College group in the city and their efforts to learn the language and become "at home" there left a very good impression and assured us of a warm welcome next year. At the same time this individual impression cannot fail to affect the over-all estimate of Americans in general, and thus I hope that the Hope College Summer School in Vienna has also contributed something towards the goal of friendship between Austria and the United States.

## FACULTY MEMBERS I DON'T LIKE

GUS TURBEVILLE

PRESIDENT, NORTHLAND COLLEGE

FROM the title of this article one might judge that I have a strong dislike for faculty members. On the contrary, having only in recent years left the teaching ranks myself, I have the utmost regard for the overwhelming majority of teachers. They are a selfless, dedicated group working at a sacrifice. For most of them their greatest interest is in their students whom they are trying to guide. They are the real flesh and blood which go to make up a school, because no school is better than its faculty.

In characterizing certain staff members whom I have known at the colleges and universities where I was either a student or an instructor, the most embarrassing thing is that in many of the descriptions I can be recognized myself—as my former colleagues will be willing to point out. But all of us have foibles, and part of the fun of life is holding up our weak spots so that we may laugh at ourselves.

1. *The Whiz.* This is the tag which belongs on the staff member who puts in his twelve- or fifteen-hour week at the school and no more. Supposedly he has office hours of about thirty minutes or an hour a day, but often he can't even stay at the school long enough to put in that much time. Although his salary may be low, he is actually getting an extraordinarily high rate of pay per hour. To him teaching is a way of putting in only a few hours a week so as to leave time for his hobbies and other activities. Yet he is always the first to complain to the administration that his course load is too heavy and his classes have too many students.

2. *The Promoter.* This individual is constantly blowing his own horn. He never misses a chance to tell others what a great teacher he is. At the drop of a hat he will rattle off a list of his publications, and especially will he mention the books which he will soon be writing—when time is available. When he does write articles for publication he neglects to mention the students who probably did a major part of the work involved on the particular project described. He heads up a number of civic committees in order to get his name in the paper. However,

he makes it a point to do little or, if possible, none of the work. And does he ever howl when he gets passed up for an academic promotion!

3. *The Authority.* He is not content to speak only in his particular field. He is all too willing to tell his colleagues all about their fields, pointing out the misconceptions they hold. Although he may not always be right he is never in doubt. He speaks rather condescendingly about his colleagues because they lack his breadth of interest and his profundity of knowledge. He thinks he is an excellent prospect for the deanship.

4. *The Talker.* He is related to the *authority*, but differs a little from him. He is the individual who cannot stop talking. From him issues a constant flow of words and he seldom gives his listeners a chance to get a word in edgewise. He is frequently an older staff member in whom the lecture habit is so firmly ingrained that he has the idea that he should be talking at all times. Incessant talking may indeed be ranked an occupational disease of teachers, especially those who come in to see the president who is hoping to leave early that day for a fishing trip.

5. *The Fanatic.* He may be a fanatic on drinking, smoking, gambling, Christianity, atheism, sexual frustration or the New Deal. No matter what course he is teaching, the subject of his fanaticism permeates it. He attempts to explain everything in terms of his pet love or pet peeve. In some ways he is akin to the Marxist who interprets everything in terms of economic determinism. This makes of course for very subjective teaching which gives students a highly distorted point of view. The only truly objective person, he believes, is one who shares his own prejudices.

6. *The Researcher.* He may be criticized on the grounds that frequently he is not at all interested in the teaching for which he is being paid. He won't take time to prepare for his classroom work, nor will he take the necessary time to counsel with students. It is only with reluctance that he will serve on faculty committees. His overpowering interest is in his own research, and frequently this interest is associated with a very sensitive ego. Besides, he is always asking the administration for funds that are needed for presidential travel.

7. *The Intellectual.* It may sound strange that intellectuality



should be disliked in a faculty member. Perhaps pseudo-intellectuality is a better term. The *intellectual* is a person who likes only abstruse writings and paintings; if anything is popular he holds it in contempt. He makes slurring remarks about the other members of the faculty, especially those who are in business administration, home economics, vocational arts, physical education and professional education. He is very dissatisfied with the student body because the freshmen don't know as much as he does. In popular terminology he is the real "snow" artist. And anyway he always makes the dean and the president feel so ignorant and insecure.

8. *The Dolt*. At the risk of revealing professional secrets, it must be admitted that there are some very dull individuals who get into the teaching ranks. Some of them after years of plodding actually get master's degrees and occasionally even a doctorate. The *dolt* is a pathetic person because often he is a conscientious, hard worker, but he is dull and terribly boring to students. He can't answer questions effectively, but he doesn't have to very often because he doesn't stimulate students to that extent. To his credit, however, he poses no threat to his department head and dean. And that's no small matter.

9. *The Complainer*. He is an individual who really makes life miserable for the administrator. When anything goes wrong at the school he is the first to report it—not to the janitor but to the dean or the president. He complains about a draft, a room which is too hot, a flickering fluorescent light, his colleagues and the general educational philosophy of the school. His criticism is destructive rather than constructive. He himself will never take the initiative in attempting to improve the faults which he sees. Needless to say, his wife nags.

10. *The Belligerent*. He is an individual with the proverbial chip on his shoulder. He is very quick to point out what he believes to be an infringement of his academic freedom. He sometimes confuses academic freedom with license. He thinks that he should be allowed to talk on any controversial topic at any time, overlooking the accepted standards that one is entitled to discuss controversial topics in class only when the topics have pertinence to that particular course. Often he is right in his belligerency, but his lack of tact causes many battles to be fought

which could best be avoided. Schools, like countries, become weaker as a result of battles and fights. At least, that's what we always tell the faculty.

Any faculty member could write an essay describing administrators under whom he has served. He could point out their many weaknesses and especially the fact that most of them are the proverbial politicians and fence-straddlers. He could mention how obsessed they are with their own importance and how they avoid responsibility by appointing a committee. He could mention their broken promises and their buckling before pressure groups. He could mention their flowery and insincere language and their lack of appreciation of true scholarship. And, if he wanted to, he could mention their opportunism and their favoritism. But he probably won't. After all, we sign the checks.

## RETIRED INDUSTRIAL PERSONNEL CAN AID HIGHER EDUCATION

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ONE of the more serious problems facing higher education today (and most certainly for many years to come), is that of faculty development and procurement. This is a problem that must be attacked by educators on both the qualitative and quantitative levels. If the problem is serious today when the colleges are coping with some three million students, it will become increasingly critical in the next fifteen to twenty years as student enrolments build up to approximately six millions. Thus the problem has both short- and long-range aspects, both of which require solution, and promptly too.

It is a well-known fact among educators that good teachers do not just happen except in very unusual cases. Usually a teacher or professor needs years of training, not only in his special field of interest but also in certain techniques of presentation that will permit him to "get across" effectively to his students. Even before a young person sets about becoming a teacher, he needs to be convinced that a career in education is one of the most delightful and rewarding experiences of life *if* the individual has the capacity and the urge to teach. Unfortunately, young people when at the motivational stage of life often fail to accept a career in teaching because they compare their futures in education with those of some of the instructors they have met in the classroom. Moreover there is always the insidious problem of financial reward which has admittedly been low in educational work. Nevertheless there is every bit as great a potential supply of teachers today as there ever was in the history of this nation. It must be the concerted task of all parties interested in the betterment of college and university education to see that in the long run teacher supply will be increased by improved salaries, greater respect and recognition, more adequate tools and facilities for teaching and greater motivation toward the teaching career at the early or twig-bending stage of the educational experience.

It is admitted that all this will take time and that many

colleges are faced with critical teacher supply problems *now*. If these problems cannot be solved for the present, will the higher educational system of the United States falter and drop into something less than the people of this nation have a right to expect? Can this economy and this society continue to progress without the added fuel that comes from educated manpower and the broad new knowledge so essential to the national development and well-being? Thus there is a definite need for some drastic interim action that can be used to solve the immediate teacher supply problem while the house of education itself provides, through broad and realistic study and program development, a long-term solution to teacher supply. It is for the immediate task that colleges, particularly the small and medium-sized liberal arts institutions, should look to retired business personnel.

*What About Retired Personnel?*—The increasing life span of the population of the United States coupled with an increase in generous retirement programs in business and industry has developed a large segment of the population with no business commitment. At most, such people grasp at various community ventures or part-time consulting work to maintain a semblance of activity. Although many of them can live quite comfortably on the pension provided by their business firm, they need the challenge of active opportunity to make the retired years pleasant and invigorating. Unfortunately this great mass of ability and knowledge is usually neglected and allowed to wither on the vine. That some academic experience in the retired years would be of interest to many of these persons goes without question. Although the general concept of a retired businessman is one of age 65 to 70, that is hardly the case now. Many companies permit retirement at 60 or earlier, thus offering many additional fruitful years for academic work. Here can be a gold mine of talent if it is properly utilized by academic institutions.

A recent study by a major United States corporation among a sample group of approximately 3700 top managers and professional personnel indicated that only 18 per cent would not be interested in some form of academic life after retirement from company service. On the other hand, 33 per cent said that they were definitely interested in such a future career, and 48 per cent indicated that upon retirement they would give serious consideration to an academic offer, particularly if they might

exercise some degree of geographic preference. This did not mean that they wanted to work in the college "next door" but at an institution in a locality where they might enjoy certain climatic advantages, such as the Far West, the Southeast and the Southwest. Some even indicated a preference for academic work outside of the United States.

Although a complete report on this survey is not available for public consumption as yet, it is possible to report that within this group of 3700 executive persons, there were many talents that could be of service in the college and university field. Approximately thirty per cent had previous college teaching experience, and a goodly additional number had had experience in teaching company courses that often had direct relation to standard academic offerings such as in the fields of economics, marketing, accounting, mathematics and the sciences. Moreover, since many of the persons surveyed were highly qualified business managers, there were many potential areas of college service represented that did not entail teaching. Such work as that of business manager, public relations director, comptroller and fund raiser were often indicated as post-retirement careers.

With such startling results from one survey covering only a representative sample of people in one company, it can readily be seen that there is a potential academic employment force in the country of a sizable number of people. This potential academic group is not being utilized even to a limited extent even though many professional agencies today are giving considered attention to its possible value. The major question lies in just how such a group might be used, how contact might be made and what problems might lie ahead if increasing numbers of retired business people joined the college and university family.

*The Roles of Industry and the Educator*—No industry wishes to establish itself as a faculty recruitment agency, nor does it wish to recommend teachers to any college. Rather the selection of teachers for the college program is a function of the academic institution itself and the educators responsible for its well-being. As a consequence then the provision of teachers from the retired group must be stimulated by the college president or dean rather than by the industrial relations manager or retirement adviser.

It would seem fitting for the college administrator to establish strong rapport with the industries in his general area, or with

specific large industries that might have retiring personnel of potential academic value to his institution. In this manner, as a man who has a certain competency that might be in academic demand approaches retirement, the industrial relations officer could bring together the educator and retiring executive for a conference that might lead to post-retirement employment.

A more productive area of service by retired industrial or business personnel might be in the non-teaching staff areas of academic life. For example, the roles of business manager or comptroller could well be exercised by retired personnel having business experience of a like nature. In fact the experience learned from business life might easily contribute many dollars of saving to the college. Moreover, in institutions where such positions are manned by teachers of known excellence, they could be relieved of assignments wasteful of their true talents and returned to teaching responsibilities.

The educational world has many good examples of former businessmen who joined an institution's staff in a non-teaching capacity but who now serve as excellent professors. Quite often they assume teaching tasks on a part-time basis and then find classroom work a happy solution to their future career problems. This is perhaps the safest method of entrance into academic life from a long career in business or industry. The transition in this case is accomplished so gradually that both parties have an excellent opportunity to study each other and come to a mutually rewarding understanding.

Another possible approach to the problem of the supply of academic personnel, and one in which retired people can play a most valuable part, lies in the cooperative alignment of a college and an industry. In this case the industry might well agree to serve an institution on a consulting basis to the end that the talents of management could be applied to the problems of the institution. Here the service is far greater than mere provision of teaching or management personnel, although that might be accomplished at the same time. Rather the skills of management could be enlisted to promote the most effective use of money, manpower and resources to the end that the college would be able to prosper in the period ahead. Certainly some business personnel, upon retirement, would then have a definite interest in



the particular institution already established and might be more readily available for teaching or non-teaching assignment.

*Cannot Depress Salary Levels*—In any program of this sort, assurance must be provided that retired business people would not further depress the academic salary scale. Any retired person from industry should be employed at the "going" institutional rate of salary for the task for which his experience and training qualify him. For example, as a professor he should receive at least the base pay of that grade and status. As a business manager he should receive the salary normally associated with the position. The problem of academic salary is so acute today that no possible avenue of further deterioration should be permitted.

The impetus for any program that would promote the effective use of retired business personnel in academic life should come from the colleges and universities. First, there should be available evidence of need for such talent in various categories. To provide this data, the administrators of higher education should be able to state quite conclusively that administrative and teaching gaps are present and that this type of personnel, when proper selection techniques are applied, could make a real contribution to the educational health of the nation. Second, a clearing house for the registry of such personnel should be established and operated by educational people or an association of such. Perhaps contributions from industry might underwrite the costs of operation of the agency, for it would certainly not be self-supporting. It should however make its facilities available for the broadest interchange of talent information between industry and education that is humanly possible. Third, a continuing review of the success of such personnel in meeting the responsibilities and obligations of the campus would be most beneficial to industry itself as well as to future candidates from the retired business group.

This is not the final solution to the faculty supply problem for it does not solve the long-range aspects to any marked degree. But the interest of top-line business and professional men in academic careers might well provide increased stature to the profession of teaching in the minds of young people who have an imaginative belief in the American success story.

## GRADUATE TRAINING IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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**G**RADUATE training in international relations has developed rapidly in recent years with the creation of special programs, schools and departments to train specialists in the field. Instruction is available in professional schools (Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, the School of International Affairs of Columbia University, the School of Public and International Affairs of Princeton University, the Woodrow Wilson School of Foreign Affairs of the University of Virginia, the School of International Affairs of Clark University and the School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins University), in interdepartmental programs (Yale University and Harvard University), and in separate departments (American University, University of Denver and University of Southern California). In addition many other institutions offer a sizable number of courses in the international field although degrees specifically in international relations may not be obtained.<sup>1</sup>

### I. REASONS FOR STUDY

International relations on the undergraduate level is primarily taught to provide the student with a broad cultural appreciation and understanding of international affairs, but graduate training is specifically designed to prepare the student for some career in the field of international relations. In this connection it is useful to distinguish between the purposes of the two graduate degrees, the M.A. and the doctorate. The former is intended to serve the student who desires an "operational" career in government, international business or in an international organization, while the latter is primarily designed to prepare students for academic careers in international relations.

In terms of these career objectives, the number of openings for people with graduate training in international relations is limited, due partly to the newness of the field and partly to the

<sup>1</sup> For a more detailed examination of graduate training in international relations see C. Dale Fuller, "Training of Specialists in International Relations," American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1956.

fact that the supply of such persons has usually exceeded the demand for their skills.

Opportunities in the government outside of the Department of State and Department of Defense are not plentiful although several federal agencies employ people with international relations backgrounds. Although the examinations for the Foreign Service are primarily designed for students who have just completed their undergraduate education, many graduate students aspire for such a career. A Foreign Service career is available to only a select few as statistics reveal that between 1932 and 1947 only 7.5 per cent of those who took the difficult written and oral exams succeeded in obtaining appointments.<sup>2</sup> This figure would be reduced further if one takes into account those successful applicants who became tired of waiting for an opening to arise and drifted into other occupations. The Foreign Service Staff Corps offers few career possibilities in view of the fact that the majority of positions are clerical. Appointment to positions within the department often depends more on specialized area knowledge and language competence other than French or German which graduate study does not always provide.

The outlook for employment with international organizations such as the United Nations and its specialized agencies is not encouraging, principally because such organizations recruit on a quota basis according to individual member countries, thereby reducing the number of openings available to United States nationals. Moreover the secretariats are small, except in the United Nations, and the rate of turnover extremely low in view of the numerous benefits received. The combination of these factors does not permit much optimism for employment in international organizations.

International business is another possible source of employment for international relations specialists, but the need for such specialists in the business world has not been fully accepted. When the value of specialized training in international relations is recognized, more openings are likely to develop. In this connection the level of employment will depend upon the state of world affairs and conditions of world trade.

<sup>2</sup> Elmer Plischke, "The Conduct of American Diplomacy," p. 451, cited by Committee for the Advancement of Teaching, American Political Science Association, "Goals for Political Science," William Sloane Associates, Inc., New York, 1951, p. 57.

With respect to teaching opportunities, the outlook is brighter but undue optimism should be avoided. The increasing number of courses in colleges and universities on the United Nations, international organization, international politics and international law have created a demand for technically trained specialists to teach these subjects as well as general international relations courses. Although most of these opportunities are in political science departments, the likelihood of the establishment of separate departments in wealthier institutions will expand the openings. The teaching field is expanding but the number of openings is not sufficient to justify any great expansion of the number of doctorates in the field.

Opportunities in international relations research are limited because of the priority of physical science research over social science research. As more corporations realize the financial advantages of donating their funds to philanthropic foundations and educational institutions, there is apt to be an expansion of research in international relations and, consequently, an increase in the number of positions available to persons with graduate degrees in international relations.

## II. THE M.A. DEGREE

The master's degree in international relations is primarily designed to prepare students for nonacademic careers in the field although it can serve as a testing ground for those who would like to obtain the doctorate. In view of the fact that most candidates for this degree will follow "operational" as distinguished from academic careers, there tends to be less emphasis on theory and research training than on the need for the practical application of basic knowledge. It is in connection with the master's degree that the greatest amount of attention is given to regional specialization.

A basic difficulty in the administration of the M.A. degree is the fact that many students do not have sufficient undergraduate preparation in the field to permit them to specialize immediately upon their entrance into a graduate school. This situation arises partly out of the fact that there are few institutions which grant separate degrees in international relations or majors in the field and partly because many students discover an interest in the study of international relations too late in their undergraduate

education to secure adequate preparation in the field. For these reasons there has been a growing tendency toward the adoption of two-year programs leading to the M.A. (such as those administered at Columbia, Harvard and Princeton) with the first year devoted to study of the functional areas of international relations and the second year to regional specialization. In addition several schools have instituted area studies programs such as the regional programs on Southeast Asia at Cornell and the University of Pennsylvania, the Slavic Studies program at Indiana University, the Center of Japanese Studies at the University of Michigan, the Far Eastern Studies program of the University of Washington, and the Russian Institute program at Columbia University, to mention only a few. These programs seek to provide the student with a cultural, economic, geographic, political knowledge of a particular area as well as language competency.

While no one will deny the need for such programs to train sorely needed specialists in areas in which the United States has been painfully ignorant, there is the danger that excessive regional specialization will deprive the student of an opportunity to obtain a fundamental knowledge of functional fields. It should be up to the interdepartmental committees which administer these regional programs to insure that the student becomes properly familiar with the functional fields of international relations.

An interesting development in connection with the training of specialists in fields other than international relations in the basic principles of international relations deserves mention. Several graduate schools of medicine, law, public administration and business administration are offering courses to students who will later engage in international activities as doctors, lawyers and administrators. Examples include the Schools of Public Administration of the University of Denver and New York University and the Schools of Engineering, Public Health and Mines of the University of Pittsburgh.<sup>3</sup> The chief drawback to such programs is the cost to those who have already invested considerable sums for training in their fields.

Finally another recent development of some interest is the awarding of a certificate for the completion of a year's graduate

<sup>3</sup> Howard E. Wilson, "Universities and World Affairs," Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York, 1951, p. 47.

study without a thesis. This practice has been defended on two grounds: (1) to serve the needs of many students with little aptitude for research who can nevertheless use fundamental training in international relations to improve their competency in international administrative positions and (2) as a means by which engineers, lawyers, economists and others can combine their professional training with additional training in foreign affairs so as to facilitate their work in government and private business.<sup>4</sup> This program therefore closely parallels the objectives of the other development listed above except that it provides for a certificate whereas the other does not.

As yet the certificate program has not gained wide acceptance in the United States, but the University of Utah and the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy are actively engaged in such programs.

Graduate training in international relations for persons who are specialists in other fields, whether it leads to a certificate or not, is hampered by the difficulty of persuading such persons to invest the necessary time and money in such programs. Also from the curricular standpoint, colleges and universities have been hindered by the lack of information about careers in various specialized fields to plan systematized programs of instruction in international relations to blend in with the professional training of the student.<sup>5</sup>

### III. THE DOCTORATE

Although the student desirous of earning a doctor's degree in international relations is confronted with the fact that few universities offer such a degree, he may be encouraged by the knowledge that an increasing number of institutions are prepared to grant this degree. According to the best information of the writer, there are ten institutions currently offering a doctor's degree in international relations.<sup>6</sup>

Until recently the strongest reason for granting the Ph.D. in

<sup>4</sup> S. Grover Rich, Jr., "University Training in International Relations," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, December 1953, pp. 605-606.

<sup>5</sup> Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

<sup>6</sup> American, Clark, Fletcher, Georgetown, Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins University, Syracuse and Yale.



one of the "old line" departments (history, political science or economics) lay in the fact that professional teaching opportunities for holders of this degree were limited to persons with specializations in the traditional fields mentioned, with very few opportunities available for people with doctorates in international relations.<sup>7</sup> Since the creation of interdepartmental committees and separate schools and departments offering numerous courses in international relations, possibilities for teaching for persons with a doctorate in international relations have improved.

An examination of doctoral programs reveals no outstanding uniformity. At New York University emphasis is placed upon the study of the United Nations and international administration, at American University on international organization, law and administration, and the program at Georgetown involves the requirement of spreading study over the fields of international economics, political theory, international law and relations and diplomatic history. Most of the programs are administered by interdepartmental committees, but separate departments of international relations exist at American University and the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy.

Opinions differ on the most desirable means of administering doctoral programs, from those who favor the interdepartmental arrangement to those who favor the separate department. In general, the separate department theoretically affords better coordination and direction of the student's program and the interdepartmental committee more of an interdisciplinary approach.

One deficiency which all programs leading to the doctorate share, however, is their failure to provide the candidate with any positive training for his future career as a teacher, which is the primary aim of those who seek the doctorate. This is a common failing recognized by most educators who realize that the extensive research requirements for the Ph.D. in the social sciences do not insure that the product developed will be capable of becoming an effective teacher. Until universities are able to secure more funds for graduate assistants, there can be no solution to this problem. In the meantime, fledgling instructors will have to learn by experience in the classroom.

<sup>7</sup> Grayson Kirk, "The Study of International Relations in American Colleges and Universities," Council on Foreign Relations, New York, 1947, p. 74.

## **PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING AND SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION**

### **PROPOSITIONS THAT NEED PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING**

1. MOST Americans now realize that our leadership, and indeed our national survival, is being challenged as never before in history. Most Americans must be brought to realize that the survival and well-being of this nation depend no less upon the strength of our educational system than upon the strength of our military establishment.

2. Educational institutions in a democracy are properly expected to meet the fundamental needs of society. If they are subject to passing whims and fancies, schools and colleges cannot perform this function. Responsible citizens share with educators a moral obligation to insist upon wise and careful planning to meet fundamental needs and to protect our educational institutions from hysterical demands and panicky reactions.

3. Critical analysis of our educational system is certainly in order, but mistaken efforts to place blame through name-calling and fault-finding should not be permitted to obscure the fact that our schools, colleges and universities are seldom much better or worse than their respective publics want them to be. The best of our institutions certainly rise above common levels of aspiration, yet the vast majority simply mirror the values most commonly held. If American education is to undergo a general improvement, the people at large must place a higher value upon intellectual achievement and must be prepared to uphold higher levels of educational performance.

4. Lip service to the value of education is not enough. The critical need is for material support. The American people can afford to spend more on education. Doing this, however, will necessitate assigning a much higher priority to the importance of teaching and research as crucial forms of enterprise in a dynamic society. There must be a willingness to practice self-denial in paying higher taxes and in making heavier voluntary contributions to provide greater material support for education.

NOTE: This statement was issued in February, 1958 by the Problems and Policies Committee of the American Council on Education. Seven of the thirteen signatories are member presidents of the Association of American Colleges.

5. The time factor is extremely important, and basic issues must be faced now. Nothing less than a massive national effort, launched immediately, will do. Local support and control will remain the best safeguards and guarantors of excellence for our diverse educational system. They can and should be preserved, but bickering over forms and sources of financial support necessary to meet the present emergency can be disastrous. Positive and immediate action on all levels—federal, state, local and voluntary—is the first imperative.

6. Economic inflation has already levied a heavier toll on educational institutions than on most other forms of enterprise. Still further inflation would be a more serious threat. If this possible consequence of vastly increased governmental expenditures for education is to be avoided, investment in our schools, colleges and universities must take precedence over existing expenditures which are of less importance to our national security.

7. The total economic resources available for higher education, whatever they may be, will necessarily exist in limited amounts. One demand upon those resources is to raise the general level of performance in all schools and colleges. If this is allowed to be the only call, however, a tragic mistake will be made. A second and vital call upon our economic resources is to strengthen our leadership in all important fields and to add to our best existing institutions the appreciable support needed to meet the demands for the highest order of quality. Statesmanship must see to it that adequate support for the attainment of both goals is provided.

8. A genius of American education has been its unity through diversity. This diversity should be preserved, with strengthening all along the line and greater stress on the importance of quality everywhere. In short, all our human resources must be vastly strengthened through the medium of improved education.

#### PROPOSITIONS THAT NEED PUBLIC SUPPORT

1. The magnitude of the job to be done can hardly be exaggerated. We are not spending nearly enough on education. Modest measures will not do the job. In colleges and universities alone, the number of qualified students will be doubled by 1970,

and a doubling of expenditures will not even perpetuate present inadequate quality levels. To do the job effectively, the following order of priorities should be observed:

Salaries for teachers, scholars and scientists should on the average be at least doubled;

Existing institutions should be maintained more adequately and some of them greatly strengthened;

Support for the establishment of new institutions will be necessary but should not be supplied at the expense of existing institutions;

Scholarship programs should stress quality rather than quantity, graduate as well as undergraduate study, and should be accompanied by a parallel system of grants to the institutions in which scholarship holders enroll.

2. Although federal support for educational activities already exists in many forms, excessive reliance upon it may weaken other sources of initiative. However this may be, we are in a national emergency, and prompt action of unprecedented magnitude is urgent. The truth seems to be that the Federal Government is the only agency which can act with sufficient speed and on a scale large enough to enable schools, colleges and universities to accomplish their tasks. Action by the Federal Government need not, and should not, extend federal controls over education. Further, as a partial attack on a problem of such great size, it need not weaken initiative and action at the state, local and voluntary levels. Federal support should be considered only as a necessary supplement to action by state and local entities, corporations, alumni, parents, churches, foundations and philanthropic individuals. The initiative and interest of these agencies and individuals are the greatest asset of American education; they must now be exercised to an extent never before demonstrated.

3. Greatly increased amounts of money must be allocated to fundamental research and other forms of creative and scholarly activity. These can be carried on more effectively in our colleges and universities than anywhere else, because in the academic environment the creativity of central figures is reproduced by students who have worked with them.

4. If American education is to continue to serve the best interests of the nation, drastic measures to increase the supply

of highly trained persons are required in many areas other than physical science and engineering. The need for teachers at all levels and in all fields is a compelling illustration. Continued progress in the humanities, the arts and the social sciences, as well as in science and technology, is highly essential to our national survival and well-being.

5. Totalitarian methods are not necessary to counter the threats of a totalitarian power. These threats can be countered and overcome by our own American strengths, strengths which in education include academic freedom for teachers, scholars and scientists; freedom of mobility and choice of programs of study and vocations by college students; diversity of programs, forms of control and philosophies among institutions. These qualities of American education must receive continuous, vigilant support.

*The actions called for cannot be postponed. The priorities must be established immediately. Should we fail to do these things, the deferred costs will be too staggering to be met in time. If the nation is to survive and prosper, we must start making the basic provisions now.*

## MODERN AMERICAN READER\*

### (Book Review)

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ANY book for the freshman English course which can inspire a flagging teacher with renewed zest, while at the same time kindling in the students a desire to read, argue and even write, is welcome indeed. This may well prove to be such a book.

It consists of over sixty essays on a wide variety of topics, written by such famous and diverse authors as Arnold Toynbee, T. S. Eliot, James Thurber, Henri Matisse, Bertrand Russell. Ranging from politics to poetry, from religion to jazz, they are nevertheless grouped into four main sections through which we trace the development of man as an individual, then as a member of a community, then of a nation and finally as an inhabitant of a universe he is still seeking to understand. Within each of these broad divisions are smaller groups, each composed of a few essays chosen—and well chosen—to illustrate various aspects of a complex subject, such as "The Arts: Antic and Otherwise," or else, as in the admirable section entitled "Belief, Value and Opinion," in order to present divergent and even flatly opposed viewpoints as fairly and as vividly as possible. Some of the essays are profoundly serious; others are urbanely witty, while several are frankly hilarious. One quality is common to them all: they are intensely alive.

This is not however an easy book to handle. It requires the kind of teacher who can use each essay as a springboard into a deeper and broader exploration of its subject and who can carry his students buoyantly along with him, as otherwise they may get out of their depth. For most of the essays are difficult, and some, like Archibald MacLeish's "Why Do We Teach Poetry?" with its brilliant distinction between the knowledge of abstraction and the knowledge of reality, very difficult indeed. Yet it is precisely in this intellectual toughness that the value of the book resides.

\* "Modern American Reader" edited by Irving Ribner of Tulane University and Paul G. Ruggiers of University of Oklahoma. American Book Company, New York. 1958. \$4.90.



In order to strengthen the reader's grasp of the subject and of the author's method of presentation, each essay is provided with a set of questions dealing in a searching manner with its content, form and style. Useful suggestions for themes follow. Particularly valuable is the unusual index, not to proper names but to ideas, literary forms and figures of speech.

The scope of this book is sufficiently wide to enable each teacher to pick and choose according to his own tastes and the requirements of his class. Where one may plunge straight into the deep waters of W. T. Stace's "Man Against Darkness," another may prefer to see whether Phyllis McGinley's reflections on "The Consolations of Illiteracy" may stimulate as well as console his not-so-well-read students. All are likely to find poetry easier to teach after reading Cecil Day Lewis's enchanting "How a Poem Is Made" with a class. In some cases it is important to study a section as a whole, in the interests of a balanced view; but, as the editors themselves point out, there is no need to follow the order in which the essays are arranged. In fact, although it was logical to place them at the beginning, most of the first group, which deal chiefly with the niceties of language, are somewhat sophisticated for the unfledged student. He might appreciate them better towards the end of the course, when he has learnt not only how to discuss philosophical problems but also something of the graceful art of small talk.

There is little doubt that "Modern American Reader" will bring the invigorating air of original thought to the freshman English classroom, where it is likely to be welcomed by teacher and student alike.

## AMONG THE COLLEGES

**A**MERICAN UNIVERSITY has received a gift of \$40,000 from Mrs. Frederick W. Davenport of Washington, D. C. for an interfaith chapel in the new School of International Service now under construction on the campus.

**C**ARLETON COLLEGE will use an anonymous gift of \$6,000 for summer research projects by faculty members in its divisions of the humanities and of social sciences, as stipulated by the donor, who recognizes the need for research in fields other than pure science.

**C**OLLEGE OF WOOSTER has received \$1,000 through a bequest in the will of the late Helen Van Kirk MacMillan, of Kew Gardens, New York, an alumna of the college who was associated with library work in the Queensborough public library system of New York. The gift is earmarked for the library fund as an endowment for the purchase of books.

**C**ORNELL UNIVERSITY, together with the Fogg Art Museum of Harvard University and the Bollingen Foundation, is sponsoring an expedition which hopes to uncover the ruins of the ancient Lydian city of Sardis, once ruled by Croesus. The expedition, under the auspices of the American Schools of Oriental Research (whose president, A. Henry Detweiler, is Associate Dean and Professor of Architecture at Cornell), will visit Turkey this coming summer to begin a three-year program of excavation of this city, once one of the great capitals of the world, where trade and the arts flourished to the extent that scholars have compared its position in the ancient world with that of Paris in modern times. The expedition, under the directorship of George M. A. Hanfmann, Professor of Fine Arts at Harvard and Keeper of Classical Art in the Fogg Art Museum, will resume excavation work carried on by a group from Princeton from 1910 until the outbreak of World War I.

**D**AVIDSON COLLEGE will have as many as sixteen foreign students each year for four years brought to its campus under a scholarship program made possible by grants from the Richardson Foundation, Inc. and the Mary Lynn Richardson

Fund (both of Greensboro, N. C.) totaling \$76,500. Included in the program are eight tuition grants totaling \$4,000 a year to the college, to help cover the difference between the tuition paid by students and the actual cost of their education. In addition to tuition, fees, room, laundry and books, the Richardson Foreign Scholars will receive a grant of \$200 for travel in the United States during the summer following their year at Davidson. Selection of the students will be made on a competitive basis with the cooperation of the Institute of International Education and of selection committees in each of the foreign countries concerned.

**DICKINSON COLLEGE** recently entered upon a pioneering adventure in cooperation between church and college when the new Allison Methodist Church and Dickinson College Chapel was erected on the Benjamin Rush Campus of the college. The site of the former church which was burned down in 1954—a corner of the campus only a few feet from the President's home—was given to Dickinson in exchange for the new location and on it a new gateway to the campus will be built. The college has contributed \$200,000 toward the \$850,000 spent on construction of the combined church and college chapel. In the exchange the college also received the former church house, which is to be the future home of the Department of Education and Psychology.

**DOANE COLLEGE** is the recipient of a \$10,000 gift from a 1914 alumna, Mrs. Robert A. Goodall, to be used for helping needy students complete their college courses.

**DOUGLASS COLLEGE** received from the former literary editor of *The Newark News*, author and educator Max J. Herzberg of South Orange, New Jersey, not long before his death last January, a fund of \$5,000 to establish an undergraduate prize in American literature. The annual award to be called the Edna N. Herzberg Prize in American Literature in memory of Mr. Herzberg's wife, will be bestowed, beginning this year, on the Douglass junior or senior who presents the best essay of 2,500 to 3,000 words on some American woman writer.

**FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON UNIVERSITY** has recently acquired the 180-acre Twombly Estate in Florham Park and Madison, New Jersey, which will become the third campus of

the university. The 100-room mansion is a copy of Hampton Court.

**HOFSTRA COLLEGE** will construct and equip a new, three-floor wing to its library, Mason Hall, with a bequest of \$250,000 received from the estate of the late William J. Gallon, textile company executive. Mr. Gallon had been making unsolicited and unrestricted gifts to the college of \$5,000 annually from 1951 until his death in June 1957.

**LAFAYETTE COLLEGE** has received from the Marquis Foundation a gift of \$6,000,000 which is the largest single endowment increase in the 126-year history of the college and raises the total endowment above \$20,000,000. The interim president, Dr. Guy E. Snavelly, noted that in his experience as a college president for twenty years and as executive director of the Association of American Colleges for seventeen years, he could recall no such large gift to a four-year college.

The New World Foundation has donated \$10,000 to the Residential Seminars on World Affairs, which have recently made Lafayette their permanent home. The seminars, in continuous operation since 1954 and conducted in the new International Seminar Center in Watson Hall of International Affairs, are for leaders in this country and abroad in the fields of education, radio, television, journalism, the public platform and industry.

**LEHIGH UNIVERSITY** is the recipient of a \$50,000 endowment fund for undergraduate scholarship aid from I. A. O'Shaughnessy of St. Paul, Minnesota, as a tribute to his friend, J. Porter Langfitt, a trustee of the university, for whom it is to be named. Another endowment fund for scholarship aid in the amount of \$35,000—specifically for students applying for admission to the College of Engineering—was donated by a 1906 alumnus, Stewart J. Cort, retired vice president of the Bethlehem Steel Company.

**MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY** president John A. Hannah is conducting a comprehensive survey of the University of the Philippines at the personal request of Carlos Garcia, recently inaugurated president of the Republic of the Philippines. Presi-

dent Garcia hopes to revise the university's educational program to make it more responsive to the needs of the Filipino people, somewhat on the pattern of the American land-grant colleges of which Michigan State was the pioneer.

The Academic Senate has adopted a plan—to be effective in 1959 if approved by the university's governing board, the State Board, of Agriculture—to put the university on a year-round footing, permitting students to earn the bachelor's degree in three years.

**PARK COLLEGE** has received an unrestricted bequest in cash, bonds and real estate totaling \$143,000 from the late Ulysses E. Sidebottom of Chillicothe, Missouri, which is the climax of a long interest in Presbyterian higher education in general and especially in the college. Earlier gifts amounted to \$60,000. A \$35,000 bequest from the late Mrs. Anne Barrett Farber of Marshalltown, Iowa, will be used to set up a "Mr. and Mrs. F. M. Farber Scholarship Fund," with preference to scholarships for pre-theological students. A previous contribution amounted to \$15,000.

**PRINCETON UNIVERSITY** has been bequeathed \$200,000 by the late Frank L. Miller, Jr., of Chattanooga. This gift to his alma mater was the largest single bequest in his estate and part of \$465,000 to be shared by 23 educational, charitable and religious institutions.

**RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE** established last March the Theodore Henley Jack chair of history in honor of its president emeritus, Dr. Jack. Contributors to the endowment were the Board of Trustees and friends of the college.

**SAINT JOSEPH'S COLLEGE**, Indiana, has adopted a new policy by which students who have attained senior standing after three years of residence in the college and have then transferred to a school of law, engineering or medicine, may graduate with honors in absentia from Saint Joseph's by completing an honors paper in the semester preceding their transfer to a professional school. In addition to meeting the requirements of their former school, they must of course show successful completion of the first year's work in the professional school.

**ST. OLAF COLLEGE** has received from the E. I. Du Pont de Nemours Company a grant of \$4,000 to establish a program to help mathematics or science students take summer courses in preparation for high school teaching.

**SARAH LAWRENCE COLLEGE** has received a grant of \$15,000 from Curt H. Reisinger, trustee of the college and well-known philanthropist, to be used for eight full teaching scholarships for the coming academic year. This is the second annual grant Mr. Reisinger has made to the college for national teaching scholarships to help create a greater interest in teaching as a career among gifted high school students.

**STANFORD UNIVERSITY** will develop, with the aid of a \$25,000 planning grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, a twofold program to improve the quality of training in subject matter and methodology of graduates who are preparing to teach, and to encourage experimentation in selected high school centers to improve the quality of education of high school students. High priority will be given to placing selected university graduates as "intern teachers" in high schools, where they teach under "master teachers."

Under a five-year, \$107,500 program, honors courses in mathematics and statistics will be offered to undergraduate majors in the behavioral sciences starting next fall. The grant is one of three totaling \$243,500, given to the university by the Carnegie Corporation. The second grant, \$36,000, is designed to continue for three years a program of special courses for graduate students with highly specialized majors, to offer them a broader outlook. The third grant of \$100,000 assures a six-year continuance of senior colloquia, seminars which allow fourth-year students the easy informality of round-table study methods used by graduate students.

**UNION COLLEGE** of New York has received a \$100,000 bequest from the estate of the late Mrs. Marjorie Nott Morawetz of Guilderland, New York, great-granddaughter of one of America's most renowned educators, Eliphalet Nott, who served as president of Union College from 1804 to 1866. The gift is to be



added to the college's endowment and will be used for maintenance of the campus and gardens.

**UNIVERSITY OF BRIDGEPORT** plans to construct a \$950,000 science building to be ready for academic use in the fall of 1959.

**UNIVERSITY OF CHATTANOOGA** has been given a \$7,500 grant by the Coe Foundation for support of a special program in American studies. Funds will be used to provide scholarships and summer courses for teachers and prospective teachers in civics, economics, history, literature and related subjects.

**UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO** will establish a Center for Continuing Education with the aid of a \$2,856,000 grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan. Of the total, \$2,333,333 has been allocated for the construction of a building with an estimated cost, including equipment, of \$3,500,000, on condition that the university provide the balance of approximately \$1,200,000 within a year. Another \$134,000 will go to support the program for continuing education during its initial three-year period, and \$388,750 is to finance a special training and research project. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation also announced, simultaneously with the Chicago grant, another of \$1,856,000 to the University of Nebraska toward the cost of a Center to serve the Great Plains area.

**UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND** dedicated on 3 May a new \$2,500,000 library which has a seating capacity of 2000 and is equipped with the very latest facilities.

**UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS** this summer offers an opportunity for college students to shorten the total calendar-year time for earning a bachelor's degree. Courses representing all major interests will be offered in two five-week terms for the student now enrolled in a four-year school. By taking courses during both terms, a student can earn almost the equivalent of a full semester's work. Graduate students will be given an opportunity to begin work toward a master's degree.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA will start next year a three-story building in modified Tudor-Gothic style and with an 80-foot tower for the new Chester Fritz Library, made possible by a one-million-dollar gift from a former student, Chester Fritz, now an international investment banker living in Rome. The library is scheduled for completion in 1961.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA reports impressive results of its free student tutoring plan, now in its fourth year. The plan, which provides for tutoring of undergraduates by other students, may well have broad value for higher education during the next decade as American colleges, faced with swelling enrolments, struggle to maintain academic standards and to keep the personal touch in teaching. Growing slowly, the plan is this year providing some 200 undergraduates with tutoring in a wide variety of subjects by 78 top-flight young scholars. The service, conceived by the Student Tutor Society at Pennsylvania, may well have the further value of stimulating new enthusiasm for the profession of teaching.

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH has become the owner of the nation's largest private collection of historic textbooks. The donor is Dr. John Nietz, professor of education at the university. The collection of more than 8,000 old textbooks, valued at more than \$20,000, will be known as "The Nietz Old Textbook Collection." The books date from textbooks used before colonial days through the turn of the 20th century and include such volumes as 400-year-old hornbooks, Noah Webster's blue-back speller and McGuffey's readers. The earliest known primer, a one-page, hand-lettered medieval hymn in Latin, printed in Frankfurt, Germany and dated 1594, is among the texts.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS has adopted a new program designed by Dr. Harry H. Ransom, vice president in charge of the campus, under which the 250 "top" freshmen (approximately ten per cent of each year's beginning class) are singled out for special treatment. From these 250 are chosen the top 25, who will be designated "junior fellows" of the College of Arts and Sciences. They will have unlimited library privileges and will be urged to consider taking advanced standing examina-

tions (already in existence but not used systematically) in all kinds of subjects, thus avoiding repetition of subject matter they have already mastered. Later, besides being brought into contact with the university's most distinguished senior scholars and with noted visiting scholars, they may enrich their learning experiences with work at centers of scholarship such as the Library of Congress, summer work, or long-session work at other American universities and universities abroad.

**WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY's** special "University Committee on the Calendar" has recommended adoption of a "trimester" calendar of three equal 15-week terms on a year-round basis, under which as little as 32 months would be required to qualify for a degree instead of the usual 48 months. It is expected that September 1959 would be the earliest date at which the change-over could be initiated.

### NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Bluefield State College, Bluefield, West Virginia. L. B. Allen.

California College of Arts and Crafts, Oakland, California.

Joseph A. Danysh.

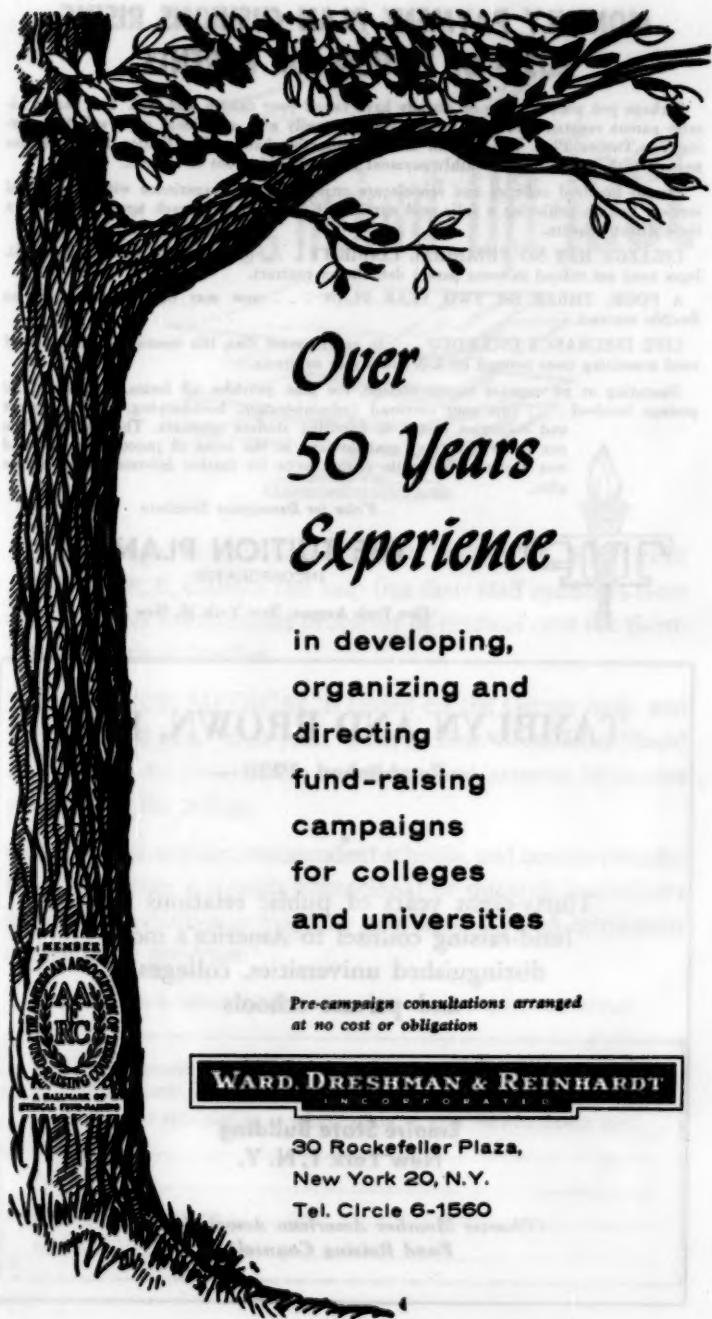
Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois. Lloyd M. Bertholf.

Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma. Freeman Beets.

Rocky Mountain College, Billings, Montana. Philip Widenhouse.

Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. Seymour A. Smith.

United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland. Charles L. Melson.



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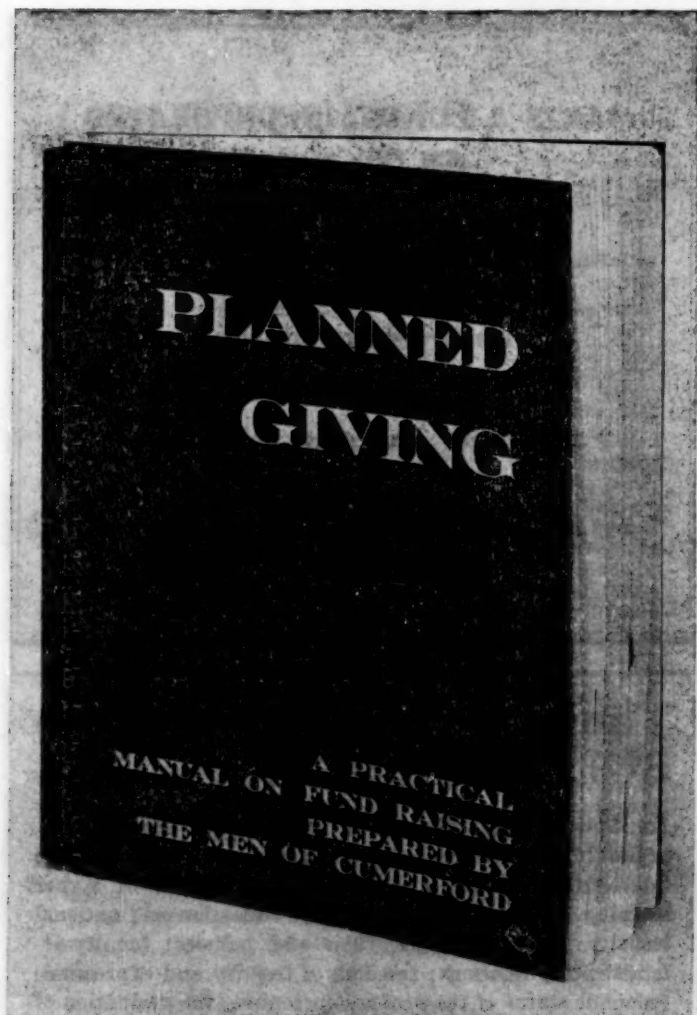
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